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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

The King of Spain and Princess Ena were married in the church of San Geronimo on Thursday. This event has struck on the imagination of English people of all classes. First, it is a marriage of love and enthusiasm on both sides. Everybody has recognised it so. This is not a sentimental side of the event: on the contrary we should rather describe it as wise and sound practice; seeing that marriage without mutual affection is unwise and on the whole a sham. Secondly, it happens to be "a good match" into the bargain in a worldly and an international sense; and of no small interest historically. Our Royal Family has been singularly happy in its marriages: happy we believe not so much through chance or kind fortune as through the sagacity and the tact and right feeling of the King and of Queen Alexandra to-day and Victoria before them.

"The fires of hell and of hate" broke out of this risen sun, an attempt being made by a bomb to take the lives of the King and Queen as they drove away from the church. It failed entirely, neither King nor Queen being touched by the explosion, but some poor sightseers standing round the royal carriage were struck down, several killed, others grievously hurt. The thrower of the bomb is under arrest. There is only one place really fit for the people who preach the insane propaganda of anarchism, alike those who preach and those who practise—a lethal chamber and "La mort sans phrase".

King Peter of Servia has placed on the retired list the more prominent of the murderers of his predecessor, King Alexander, whose removal by assassination left the way open for Peter Karageorgevitch. This was no doubt an heroic step to take, and the King may be congratulated on his singular courage. Then to show

that he is not forgetful, he and his Government have decided to grant the retired conspirators the privilege of full pay, attaching to their military rank on the active list, in addition to their pensions. Here indeed we have the heavy hand of justice. After so splendid a vindication of right, so stern a condemnation of murder, ought not this country to hasten her representative to Belgrade?

If the Russian Douma accepts its constitutional position, there will be ample room for accommodation between the legislative ideals so boldly sketched in its address to the Tsar and the measures for which the Ministry will assume responsibility. The Premier, answering the Douma's address, declared that extreme proposals such as universal amnesty and the specific plan by expropriation for satisfying the peasants' requirements in land legislation were impossible. What the Ministry refuses to do is to adopt the specific schemes of the Douma; but it is prepared to deal on its own lines with all the great subjects of reform such as the land question, education, electoral laws, amnesty and the revision of taxation. On the analogy of our parliamentary system, these differences would result in the resignation of Ministers or a dissolution. The demand of the Douma assumes that it is a Parliament, or rather shows that it wants to be; but that is not the condition under which it has met. So that resignation or dissolution is not a logical alternative. Whether the Douma will co-operate with the Ministry, or be irreconcilable and make itself the centre of a new rebellion against the Crown, is the question that remains to be answered.

Austria and Hungary are again in a high tension of antagonism towards each other over the eternal tariff question. Prince Hohenlohe and his ministry, which had only been in office three weeks, have resigned; and the Reichsrath, fearing it may be prorogued though so recently elected and a non-parliamentary ministry appointed, is in a fever of excitement. In the arrangement recently come to between the Crown and the Hungarian Coalition Ministry it was agreed that the Austro-Hungarian tariff, on which the foreign commercial treaties were negotiated, should be introduced

to the Hungarian Parliament as a separate Hungarian and not as an Austro-Hungarian measure. Whether or not Prince Hohenlohe knew of this concession to Hungary, which has now produced such great indignation in Austria, he refused to assent to it in his conferences with the Hungarian Premier; and his resignation followed.

He had already declared in public that if any alteration was introduced into Austro-Hungarian relations it must only be by a general settlement of the whole question. Moreover the tariff had previously been passed by the Reichsrath as an Austro-Hungarian measure, which makes the slight to Austria appear the greater. This new quarrel between the two ill-assorted partners increases the national animosity already existing. It is not unwelcome however to the opponents of universal suffrage who see in the fall of the Hohenlohe Ministry a check to that measure; though the Prince's patriotic attitude has increased his popularity with all Austrians.

Germany's Colonial policy has suffered a serious setback, and the projected special Colonial Department has to be abandoned as the result of successive hostile votes in the Reichstag on Saturday. The temper of the House was shown by the rejection of the demand for four companies of black troops and the cutting-down of the proposed compensation of £525,000 to ruined settlers by half a million. When the vote for £250,000 for the extension of the railway from Kubub to Keetmanshoop came to be considered, Colonel von Deimling, General von Trotha's successor in South-West Africa, challenged the authority of Parliament by saying that he would never abandon any part of the Southern district unless commanded to do so by the Kaiser. The Reichstag promptly replied to this exceedingly undiplomatic speech by a vote of 186 to 95 against the proposed addition to the taxpayers' burdens. After this it was not strange that the new Colonial Secretaryship found only 119 supporters in a house of 261. On Monday after a conference between Ministers and the Clericals who were mainly responsible for the legislative débâcle of Saturday, the Reichstag agreed to restore the old Colonial Department. The effect must be a serious modification of the plan of campaign in South-West Africa.

The Natal Government is maintaining a strict censorship which, while it prevents alarmist reports from getting through, serves to intensify fears that the situation is extremely serious. At the very moment that the Colonial Government are said to regard the backbone of the rebellion as broken, they have increased the strength of the forces at Colonel Mackenzie's command, have accepted further offers of volunteers, and have called out more reserves, though it may be these are only to take the place of others who are being disbanded. There have been one or two sharp skirmishes, in which many rebels and one or two colonial troopers have lost their lives, but forced marches and efforts generally to locate Bambaata have exhausted the colonial detachments engaged to no purpose. So far as we can see the rebellion on its present lines, even though it does not spread, might last for many months to come.

After the great function of the previous week at which he was the central figure, Lord Milner's speech in accepting the honorary freedom of the Grocers' Company on Tuesday appeared perhaps somewhat of an anti-climax. He spoke with the consciousness that the public were hearing rather much of him, though he might have remembered his own remark at the Cecil that not a man but a principle is involved. His philosophy of public praise or blame is excellent. If blame is not always deserved neither is praise, and he said "The best thing to do is to bank the praise when one gets it and live upon it when one does not get it and not make too much fuss either way". On that basis Lord Milner is certainly solvent and indeed should have an ample credit account still open.

Mr. Churchill's speech at the West Australian dinner was a chastened effort winding up with an almost touching assurance that the great Liberal party will

do its duty by the Colonies. The tone was utterly at variance from the earlier utterances of the present Colonial Under-Secretary, and makes us wonder whether straight talk between the Colonial Office and the Colonies has not convinced even Mr. Churchill that he must not presume too far. It is something at least to be told that he desires only to meet the colonial representatives next year in practical and friendly discussion. He made much of the point that the Conference should be "free and unfettered", and actually hopes that the question of inter-colonial preference will be considered. It is a small thing, he said, to impose reciprocally hostile tariffs: it would be an infinitely smaller thing to make an adjustment in each other's favour.

By means of the closure the Government have forced through the first clause of the Education Bill unamended. They will not gain much by these debates. The injustice of the Bill becomes, as it must do, more apparent every hour it is debated. Mr. Birrell has given up any attempt to defend its consistency or its equity; it is all wrong, he admits, in theory, and from that he argues that it will probably be all right in practice. An intelligent lead for a Minister of Education! Conversely, to the Unionist counter-proposal of general right of entry he replies that it is admirable in theory, he cannot gainsay it, but he is sure it would not work. Towards the end of the debate Ministerialists became unmannerly. Mr. F. E. Smith in particular was shown no sort of courtesy; though we can understand the provocation of imperturbable assurance. A propos of Mr. Smith our impression was that he was alluding to Balzac when he recommended Mr. Crombie M.P. a diet of rotten apples for oratorical purposes; but now it is stated that the reference was to Schiller.

The Home Secretary must take his work more seriously. No one will grudge him his fair share of social and convivial enjoyment; but he must not let attractions of that class take him from the House when a Bill is forward for which he is responsible. Had he taken a severer view of his responsibilities on Tuesday, he would have saved Sir William Robson a painful humiliation and the House some unpleasant passages. When the Bill setting up the commission of inquiry into the D'Angely case was under discussion, Unionists objected to the omission of the usual clause indemnifying witnesses. The Solicitor-General in Mr. Gladstone's absence gave solemn and elaborate reasons why the clause should be omitted: but the Opposition was not convinced. Thereupon Mr. Whiteley roundly accused them of a breach of faith: an accusation which was most offensively repeated the next day by the Prime Minister against Mr. Balfour personally. However, Mr. Gladstone appeared later and gracefully accepted the Opposition request for an indemnity clause, throwing over his colleague, the Solicitor-General, without any hesitation.

On another police matter the Government have come out badly, or, to say the least of it, dubiously. By a compromise with Lord Newton the Government agreed, when the Police Superannuation Bill was in the Standing Committee, that when a constable left one force and afterwards joined another, the term of service in the former force necessary, before it could count for pension and be added to the second term, should be reduced from three years to two; and the amendment was actually made. When, however, the Bill came up again in the House of Lords, the Government went back on its agreement with Lord Newton, Lord Beauchamp for the Home Office moving to restore the period of three years. The explanation was that the reduction of the period turned out to be a breach of the privileges of the other House. One cannot wonder that Lord Newton objected to being jockeyed in this way. Lord Lansdowne was wrong in letting the Government off so easily. He should have insisted on their sticking to their bargain and left them to find their own way out of the mess they had got into. He gave away his own House.

The Commons did not rise without devoting some of its latest moments to the discussion of its dinner hour, a topic of unfailing interest. No matter what the party composition of the House, it is always hugely delighted

to talk about itself. There are fears for Mr. Birrell's stamina if a pause for dinner is not restored: the Prime Minister noticed him "pale" on Wednesday. Then Mr. Harcourt unfolded to the House a wondrous scheme for saving time in divisions. The Peers' staircase is to go, new doors are to be made here and there, with sundry other structural reforms. Strangers will not be turned out of the seats under the gallery: this at any rate is a sensible change. But how these members of Parliament do take themselves seriously. All this pains to save a few minutes over divisions, after the hours and days and weeks that are wasted in futile talk! However Mr. Harcourt himself took it in the right way, en farceur.

Mr. Michael Davitt who died in Ireland on Wednesday, sixty years of age, was the romantic figure of the Nationalist party. He was absolutely honest, we should say, as a politician—no self-seeker, no self-advertiser. Perhaps he detested England more than he loved Ireland, for, brooding darkly on past punishments, his character was one of hate rather than love. All the "old dead body of hate" however he swept away for ever in his will, simply and beautifully expressed. He was a patriot no doubt according to his lights. Though Mr. Davitt hated England and most things English, he made an exception of the working classes. He was far more in touch with them than any other Irish Nationalist leader. He was an earnest Roman Catholic, but his hostility towards the Irish priesthood was hardly veiled: of recent years he broke out against them bitterly on several occasions.

Mr. Davitt was quite an orator—though the effect of some of his best speeches in the House was marred by the fact that practically he read them out from a manuscript. His voice and manner were peculiarly winning and his physique was distinctly that of an orator. He had an iron will, little or no vanity, and a history that endeared him to Nationalism. Yet, with these gifts, he was little of a leader, and achieved next to nothing. He had evidently no driving or directing power to speak of. For a time Parnell found Davitt a most inconvenient and impracticable person. To read Mr. O'Brien's book one might suppose that Parnell was really very fond of Davitt. We greatly doubt it. Mrs. Dickenson in her book probably gives us a better glimpse of the real relations of the two than Mr. O'Brien. She can tell how on one occasion Davitt, at an important and secret meeting of Nationalists at Parnell's quarters, protested against the lady being present. Parnell instantly over-ruled his awkward follower. No one was quicker than Davitt to give up Parnell at the crisis fifteen years ago.

Mr. Burns' speech on the unemployed shows the very strained relations between him and the labour members. He is evidently very sore and defiant, and there was an annoyance in his expressed determination to do what he pleased which an ordinary minister would have hardly ventured to show. He was never in favour of labour colonies; but there is a good deal of audacity in saying that ambitious politicians, or labour members, or members of municipalities want public funds for the sake of popularity. All that can be inferred from his speech is that he does not like the Unemployed Act and will do as little as possible to extend it. His principal defence of this intention is the confidence he feels in the excellent intentions and superior ability of the President of the Local Government Board; and as far as we can gather a similar belief is the policy of the Government in the matter. Those who differ from him are doss-house economists and soup-kitchen reformers. He fairly seemed to revel in throwing ultra-radical and individualist sentiments into the teeth of the socialist and semi-socialist labour members. Perhaps it was "only his fun" just to spite them.

Is a Government, foursquare to all the political parties and combinations of parties in the State, doomed to defeat by one of the departments which itself controls? The Board of Agriculture expert is at present considering the proposal to make a fishery board of the rivers Test and Itchen; and some of the originators of the scheme appear to be confident that the report

will be in their favour. Probably they are wrong, but it would be quite a piquant position if they turned out to be right, for it is said that there are no fewer than three members of the Government, two in the Cabinet and one out, who are dead opposed to the change.

If the success of the Central Public House Trust Association is not meteoric, it is steady and very hopeful for the future. A reader of the fifth annual report which has just appeared will find in it some reason for supposing that "the wave of temperance", which we have heard of in recent Budgets, is far from being merely imaginary. There are now two hundred and six public-houses under trust management; and their influence undoubtedly spreads to the ordinary public-house. In some cases we are afraid the action of magistrates rather stands in the way of the trust. Several instances are mentioned in the report where the magistrates have not been able to resist the temptation of the large sums which brewers offered for the monopoly value against the competition of the trust.

In our last week's novels there appeared by something like a coincidence a notice of the novel by Mr. Upton Sinclair called "The Jungle"; and the telegrams from America on the Monday after showed that all America was talking of the ghastly subject of tinned meats as prepared and supplied by Chicago to America and other parts of the world. It seems that Mr. Sinclair had not at all exaggerated the horrors and infamies of the meat trade in Chicago. They have been confirmed by a report which Mr. Roosevelt has obtained from two commissioners whom he instructed to make a report after reading Mr. Sinclair's book. Mr. Sinclair has scored the greatest success of a novel with a purpose since "Uncle Tom's Cabin". Now all the American newspapers have taken the matter up; though why they were not aware of the facts or did not disclose them until "The Jungle" appeared is not explained.

Apparently it is taken for granted that the Meat Trust is doing all in its power to prevent the publication of the report of Mr. Roosevelt's commissioners. A Bill is said to have been drafted for the purpose of improving the condition of the employés, and for securing the public against the horrible stuff which is put into tins for consumption in the armies and navies and public institutions of many countries besides America. But if a tithe of the allegations is true, the corruption is not only in the material but in the inspectors who already are supposed to prevent meat unfit for human food being prepared and doctored by the most elaborate methods of science in order to conceal its real nature. What can a bill do where bribery and fraud are the atmosphere which everybody breathes? There seems more to be hoped from the natural repugnance of consumers to be poisoned; and the consequent collapse of the business which supplies the poison. No baser crime against humanity has ever been committed than that of which the American meat trusts are being accused. As to the general conditions of the meat industry they are too like those that exist in other departments of American industrial life—probably the worst in the world.

Vast as are the labours of the London Traffic Commission, there is one branch of the subject it has not dealt with. There is not the least doubt that the din of the streets has been greatly increased by the new motor-omnibuses. The uproar of the London streets has never been so hateful, so distressful as it is this season. The hero of "Maud" buried only a yard beneath the flagstones and conscious of the din above could not have been in worse plight than living Londoners to-day with sensitive ear on whom incessant noise jars. It is not only the great weight of the new vehicles that has added to the row all day and most of the night—it is the horrible whine and whirr they make: this is quite a new variety of noise, perhaps the most wearying of any. The good honest clump of the horseshoe, even the roar of the tire-less wheel, are less distressing than this. To reduce the volume of sound in the London streets is becoming an insistent problem of public comfort and health.

The Studio Murder, as it is called, a strange and horrible thing, has been a topic for millions of people through the week. Ruskin wanted a public chronicle of only the good or beautiful events of the day; and he would argue with passionate sincerity that we should look away from the dark and sinister and sordid side of life. The wisdom of such a course would be doubtful enough, even if in practice it were possible. Still we do feel sure that ghoulis crimes and horrors are fed on by people educated and uneducated to excess to-day. How conceivably can any good come to young people, for instance, through reading every detail of such a case as this Studio Murder—how in fact can anything but downright evil accrue through it?

Worship Street, Shoreditch, has lost its chief distinction, the Worship Street Police Court, which has this week been removed to Old Street. Worship Street for Londoners during more than sixty years has really meant the Police Court; just as Bow Street, or Marlborough Street, mean the Courts there. Worship Street was formerly Hog Lane, and its more euphonious name was given to it from a place of worship which John Wesley established there. That is almost the only historic association of Worship Street, for though the Court was so long well known in its way it had none of the prestige of Bow Street with its runners and detectives of fiction. Possibly it was there that Mr. Jagers bit his formidable forefinger at a predecessor of Mr. Montagu Williams or Mr. Cluer; but that is conjecture. Mr. Montagu Williams was the most distinguished of its magistrates; and he attracted much attention to it by his energy in denouncing the slums which abounded in its neighbourhood.

It is announced that the National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne, has, with commendable shrewdness, purchased two pictures which were passed over by the Council of the Academy in making the Chantrey purchases, but have received the approval of disinterested criticism. One of them is Mr. Buxton Knight's landscape at the Academy, the other a landscape at the New Gallery by Mr. Mark Fisher, whose exhibition of water-colours at the Leicester Gallery, by the way, closes to-day. The Melbourne Gallery disposes of an income as large as our National Gallery grant and Chantrey Fund together, and seems disposed to show an example of independence to galleries at home. It might do worse than add to its purchases another picture which, it is reported, the Chantrey Committee recommended, but the Council rejected, Mr. Rothenstein's "Aliens at Prayer", one of the best pictures of the year. We note with satisfaction that Sir Thomas Gibson-Carmichael has been appointed a trustee of the National Portrait Gallery, where his wide knowledge of art and history should prove most useful.

An action in Chancery against Mr. Arthur Walter has been begun by some of the proprietors of parts of shares in the "Times", and will shortly be heard by Mr. Justice Warrington. The plaintiffs complain that, while their liability is unlimited, they are not allowed to have any voice in the management of their property, and that Mr. Walter refuses to allow them to sell their shares to anybody but himself, at a price fixed by him, and to render them any balance-sheets or profit and loss accounts. They further complain that Mr. Arthur Walter, having been appointed manager of the "Times" by the late Mr. John Walter at a salary of £1,000 a year, does not devote his whole time to the management of the paper, but has appointed some other person as manager at a salary of £5,000 a year or thereabouts. They further complain that enormous sums of money were spent on "Parnellism and Crime", which had nothing to do with the business of a newspaper, and that Mr. Walter has embarked on hazardous speculations in connexion with the Encyclopædia and other ventures, but particularly the "Times" "book club". They call upon Mr. Arthur Walter to produce the accounts of the profits and losses of these various speculations, and claim that the "Times" shall be turned into a joint-stock company, with limited liability, a board of directors, and published accounts. Truly a very interesting action.

SPAIN AND ENGLAND.

IT requires courage to be a king or a queen in these enlightened days. Thank God, King Alfonso and Queen Ena escaped. The mark of the assassin, that accursed abomination, the scum and offscouring of civilisation, is on the day; but it will for that be even more a day of love, the love of two great nations for two brave souls on the fiery threshold of a strenuous life.

It is curious to observe how little thought is given by the public here to the political side of the Spanish marriage. This is due to two causes, the human interest in a "love match" which dominates the majority, and the gross ignorance of Spanish affairs which prevails everywhere in this country. If the former is creditable to us the latter is not. There is also the general tendency prevalent to-day to assume that dynastic considerations no longer count. At one time the world's wars were made for such reasons, now they spring from the impulse of peoples; that at least is the theory. But it would be none the less true to say that dynastic considerations often prevent nations flying apart. The secret European history of the last twenty years would bear out this contention to the letter. But over and above this general delusion there prevails the particular one that Spain does not matter in these days, she is decadent and need not be seriously considered. Unfortunately it was Lord Salisbury who made this fiction current; it is not the opinion of those who are responsible for the conduct of European affairs. By them the Spanish match is looked upon as one of the cleverest moves of an astute royal diplomatist.

If some European nations can afford to ignore Spain England is not among them, nor is any Power to whom the Mediterranean is an object of interest. The States outside of that category are not "Powers" in any proper sense of the term. The development of international intercourse places Spain in a position still more privileged than she enjoyed after the discovery of the New World. Geographically the growth of maritime commerce and of the overseas empire of other States gives her the command of sea routes even more securely than she held it after the exploits of the Conquistadores in the sixteenth century. When the Panama Canal is finished, if ever it is, Cadiz will be 800 miles nearer than Hamburg to San Francisco and also much nearer to the ports of Chili and Peru. It was pointed out recently in the SATURDAY REVIEW that Spain dominates geographically the Mediterranean routes and the ports of North Africa. Port Mahon is the striking centre provided by nature to command Toulon, Algiers, and Bizerta, while with Cadiz in the hands of her friends England could absolutely bar the entrance of the sea which has been from time immemorial the highway of Empire. Vigo again is the natural base for a fleet watching the approach of an enemy from the North. A close alliance with Spain or even substantial relations of friendship must therefore go a long way to lighten our task of supervising the road to the East. It must also be remembered that Spain possesses four ports on the northern coast of Morocco. With these in the hands of a friend backed by our fleet we can at least feel free to contemplate with composure the manœuvres of other Powers at Fez. France, Spain, and England have worked in harmony at Algeiras and this country has been well inspired in showing of late more consideration for Spanish sentiment than was the fashion a few years ago, even if the impulse comes from self-interest as much as from courtesy.

But there are reasons other than geographical or dynastic to encourage us to pursue a policy of closer relations with Spain, a policy which has its roots in a commonsense view of our European position. The defeat of Spain by an enemy so ill organised and prepared as the United States, was certainly striking evidence of the existing disorder in Spanish administration, but apart from the incidents of the war and the momentary blow to Spanish pride, there can be little doubt that the loss of her overseas empire was a disguised blessing to her. The progress of the Spanish nation since is evidence of this. The stream of men and capital which set for years towards the tropics has been arrested and flows into the neglected

regions of Spain herself. What this means may be learned by anyone who has the patience to read our own Consular Reports, the best source of information on foreign countries ever possessed by any nation, though wholly neglected. It might legitimately be assumed that any country which had undergone such a national trial as the war with the United States would reel under the blow for years, but in Spain nothing of the kind has happened. In Cadiz alone the receipts of the Custom House in 1899 doubled those of the preceding year and were greater than those of many years before though a disastrous war had just closed, and there is no sign of retrogression. In the North at Coruña, Bilbao and Santander the same phenomenon is apparent. One hundred thousand men who formerly went to recruit the colonial army have remained in Spain and about £15,000,000 sterling of capital. Employment has been found for both in an extraordinary growth of the mining industry and in the manufacture of cotton fabrics. The mineral resources of Spain are an old story. They were known to the Phœnicians but they are far from being exhausted, for in the latest reports our Consuls inform us that there was an increase in value in the output of nearly half a million sterling in 1903 over 1902. In manufactures there is a great increase of large factories and the native products are beginning to drive out those of the foreigner. Another sign of national enterprise is the introduction of light railways which are now in many places bringing the products of the mines down to the coast.

These facts are at all events sufficient to expose the folly of speaking of a nation that has shown this capacity for revival on the morrow of an unhappy war as dying or decadent. In truth the latent wealth and power of Spain are immeasurably greater than the world at large gives her credit for. There is of course much in the geographical formation of the country which seems to justify pessimism, but it is in reality undeveloped and not exhausted. Superficially it bears a strange resemblance to Australia, and still more to Asia Minor. A fertile, wealthy, and populous belt runs all round the coast, while inland lies an arid lofty tableland, often apparently little better than desert, and fit for nothing but rearing sheep, but Spain possesses much better rivers than Australia, and Asia Minor might under decent government revive the glories of the past. With something better than a parliamentary system conducted by farcical parties without party principles Spain might enjoy practical measures which would fertilise her waste places.

The truth is that the Spaniards have never devoted themselves to developing Spain. Almost as soon as she became a nation in any sense of the word, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, her best and most adventurous spirits were attracted to colonial enterprise, and it has been the same ever since. We are seeing now the evolution of a new spirit in the country itself. Even to-day the ancient isolation of the various provinces still continues, and is a bar to progress. The greater the advance towards national unity the greater will be the growth of prosperity and strength in the State. If a sense of their own absurdity and incapacity could be fused into Spanish politicians, the growth of the country might be rapid. For instance, if the improvements promised in the harbour of Cadiz were carried out it would become at once strategically and commercially vastly more important than it is to-day. It might soon be again the *dépôt* for the New World of Africa as once it was for Peru and the Indies, and to a considerable extent it might revive its connexion with South America. It would already appear that British trade is seeking a market in Barcelona far more strenuously than in the past. Catalonia and England are old friends, and the most progressive district of the monarchy may well be weaned from republicanism if the English connexion means increased commercial prosperity. The pretence that the Spanish marriage is nothing more than a pretty domestic incident in royal annals shows rare incapacity to grasp its real significance. Either nation which fails to profit by its possibilities will stand convicted of criminal negligence; but happily there is no reason to doubt that Spanish and British statesmen are equally alive to the opening for mutual confidence and mutual advantage.

A GOVERNMENT-MARCONI JOB.

IF members of Parliament and the public understood better the conditions under which wireless telegraphy is worked in this country, they would look with keen suspicion on the Government Bill now before Parliament for extending the Wireless Telegraphy Act of 1904. The Act expires in July of this year, and it is now proposed to extend it for a further period. Since it has been in operation it has been so administered as to give a practical monopoly to the Marconi system of wireless telegraphy and to exclude all possible competitors. It enables the Postmaster-General to grant licences for establishing and installing wireless telegraphy in any place, or on any British ship; and with insignificant exceptions the only issue of licences has been to the Marconi Company. The Admiralty and the Post Office have adopted the Marconi system alone: and by an agreement between the Post Office and the company the Post Office receives a share of the receipts from all messages handed to the Post Office for transmission to ships at sea. The engineers of the Marconi Company have become the advisers of the Government departments on all questions relating to wireless telegraphy. If other companies apply for licences, their proposals and plans have to pass through the hands of the Marconi Company's officials who report on them to the Government departments. It will be readily understood that under such conditions other companies have little chance of obtaining licences whether they want them for commercial purposes or for the purpose of making experiments. There is keen rivalry between the Marconi and other systems of wireless telegraphy. Other systems, such as the Lodge-Muirhead and the De Forest-Maskelyne, claim that they can send communications without any danger of their being "tapped" and that they are not disturbed by the interaction of any other system that might be working in their field. They assert that the Marconi system has not this supreme merit. We neither wish to assert nor deny anything as to this; but in such a case of rivalry it is obviously unfair that one rival should have to submit his proposals to another as a preliminary to obtaining a licence; and it is equally obvious that he is not likely to get it. We may mention by way of illustration the case of a member of Parliament who is conducting experiments in propelling and directing torpedoes by wireless electricity. He ought, of course, to obtain a licence from the Postmaster-General; but so strong is his objection to laying his plans before this official, advised as he is by Marconi engineers, that he does not apply for a licence, but runs the risk of being sued by the Postmaster-General under the Act.

During the two years that the Act has been in operation it has prevented healthy commercial competition between the various systems of wireless telegraphy; and has stood in the way of scientific advance by limiting opportunities of experiment. It is now proposed to set up a further close time for an additional term of years for the immunity of the Marconi Company from competition and the discouragement of inventions. Inventions can neither be of use to the public nor produce profit to their originators nor to the companies who work them unless an open field is provided; and this will be restricted in future as it has been since the Act of 1904. The present Bill, like the existing Act, has not been fully and fairly discussed in Parliament. It is now in the Committee stage in the House of Lords; and an amendment has been accepted by the Government which will reduce the term of six years originally proposed to three. In the Commons they refused any reduction of term, but they have since given way thus far. The relations between the Government and the Marconi Company are such as to make this extended term nothing but an instrument in the hands of the Postmaster-General for continuing the monopoly of the Marconi Company. When the Act of 1904 was passed, the agreement of the Postmaster-General with the Marconi Company was not generally known; and certainly not that it would have the effect which has followed it. The Postmaster-General is under obligation to secure the company from interference by other rival installations or establishments that might be set up. Conversely

the company has no liability to change its stations or its apparatus or arrangements if it only uses the best methods it may happen to possess for preventing interference with its messages; and we have already pointed out that there are several rival companies who assert that the Marconi Company does not possess the means of preventing interference such as are possessed by the systems they themselves work. However this may be, scientific jealousy, and perhaps the even stronger desire for making the best possible commercial use of its privileges, have led the Marconi Company to work the agreement so that practically their competitors have been excluded from their neighbourhood and been forced to confine themselves to an extremely limited sphere of action. This agreement has in short prevented the Act of 1904 from being administered impartially, as both a Conservative and a Liberal Government have declared it was intended to be. But it is clear that it cannot be administered impartially so long as this agreement exists. While it continues, and the power of the Postmaster-General in regard to the granting of licences remains as undefined as it is under the expiring Act, and as it will be in the extension Act, so long the licences will be withheld from competitors and jobbed in the interests of the Marconi Company. This is the reason why it is so desirable to restrict the time fixed by the present Bill; and at the most it ought not to exceed another two years, the term of the original Act of 1904.

The present Postmaster-General in a speech on the Bill said: "The Post Office desired to give every facility to experiments by rival systems; they wanted to have experiments tried on these rival systems in order that they could see which was the best. He took the same view as his predecessor and had no desire to limit experiments, but on the contrary to encourage as far as might be the various systems." That is the laudable object to pursue; but what is actually pursued is the aggrandisement of the Marconi Company, the discouragement of invention and experiment, and the arrest of the development of wireless telegraphy, with consequent injury to the public interests. The grant of licences freely to wireless-telegraphy companies, with no other motives but that of giving free play to all competing systems, is the only method by which the objects proposed by the Postmaster-General can be attained. Experiment and enterprise are stifled whilst licences are withheld in order that the commercial agreement between the Postmaster-General and the Marconi Company may make things easy and profitable for both. The Postmaster-General plausibly urged the extension of the Act by the present Bill by the suggestion that if the process of wireless telegraphy proceeded so rapidly owing to the discovery of inventions as to make it necessary to introduce other legislation, a Bill would be introduced either by himself or his successor before the end of six years. But he is purposing to extend a system which is retarding wireless telegraphy and the discovery of inventions. While it exists there is every reason to fear that the stage may be long retarded before the date for the legislation he speaks of will have arrived. What the public wish to know, and what they are prevented from knowing, is whether it is true that there are rival systems of wireless telegraphy which are better and safer than that of the Marconi Company, which are not liable to disturbance from wireless electrical currents and so to be tapped, especially in time of war. If there are such systems we can only be assured of it by their being permitted to operate in free competition; and this they have not been and are not allowed to do owing to the restrictions of the Postmaster-General's agreement with the Marconi Company. If the Postmaster-General is to be bound hand and foot in issuing licences by this agreement, his power of prohibiting the operations of all other companies than the one favoured by Government ought to come to an end, and competitors be left free as they are in other countries. There they have all liberty to engage on equal terms; and there is no protection of one to the exclusion of others. When the Bill comes before Parliament again after Whitsuntide, it is to be hoped that a strenuous effort will be made to cut down the period of four years to two at most as provided by the

original Act. Before that time has expired it will be possible to prepare legislation so defining the conditions under which the Postmaster-General shall issue his licences that equal justice will be done to all and wireless telegraphy worked to the greatest advantage of the public.

RELIGIOUS ASCENDENCY OR RELIGIOUS EQUALITY?

IT has now become clear what is the fundamental issue the country has to settle in the controversy of the Education Bill. One by one, as the debate in the House and the discussion in the country proceeds, adventitious points are dropped, and false issues exposed. The real question is, shall the State impose, or allow to be imposed, one form of religious teaching in the State schools, irrespective of the wishes of the parents, or shall the wishes, or acquiescence, of the parents be the condition of religious teaching? The issue, shall religious teaching be excluded from the schools, may be dismissed as settled. In this matter the House of Commons may be taken fairly to represent the country, and the decision is emphatic that religious teaching shall not be banished by law from the schools. But the Government do propose to make it an "extra", a kind of excrescence on school, by putting it outside school hours. Neither have the Government ventured to make it a duty on education authorities to give the religious teaching which the Government have authorised. In the result under the Government scheme the place occupied by religious teaching may be much less but it cannot be greater than it is now. The Government have established an ascendancy for a particular type of religion, with all the drawbacks and all the evils which every ascendancy, even if on the whole the best arrangement, necessarily involves, without any set-off in the way of increased security for religious teaching, or compensation in gain of educational unity. Looking at the Bill now, in the light of fuller explanation by its authors and closer grasp of its details, we wonder that a scheme could be produced which combined so many disadvantages with so little gain. This is no mere partisan statement. Its authors admit with the utmost frankness the imperfections of their Bill; they do not pretend it is what they would have desired it to be; their constant excuse, and Mr. Birrell's tone is always one of excuse, is that they had to do the best they could in the circumstances. This is just what it seems to us they have not done; on the contrary they have painfully hammered out the plan which could produce the smallest results with the largest amount of friction. The Government admit that the Bill is practically not an Education Bill; it does next to nothing to advance education; as a religious settlement, it is not logical, it is not consistent, it is not equitable; minorities, as Mr. Birrell says, must suffer; it is not a settlement, for it offends certain sections of the nation too deeply for them ever to accept it, and these sections are too powerful and too numerous, even if a minority, to be ignored. If they will never acquiesce in the new arrangement, it can be no settlement.

Looked at from any point of view of statesmanship, it is difficult to see what the Bill is expected to accomplish. Only if looked at from a purely party point of view is the Bill intelligible. At first sight it seemed to us merely a device to satisfy the political nonconformist; and everything that has happened in the meantime has tended to convince us that our first thought was right. The Bill must have been meant to do something, and one thing it can do is to settle the account between the nonconformists and the Government; and this, it seems to us, is the only thing it can do. It is idle for Mr. Birrell to insist that the undenominationalism established by the Bill is not nonconformity. That is not the point. Whether it is nonconformity or something contrary to nonconformity, the nonconformists are satisfied with it and only they. It is what they want. And the exceptions in the Bill, contrary to nonconformist sentiment, but emphasise the fact. Mr. Asquith admitted frankly enough that Clause 4 was intended for the benefit of Roman Catholics and Jews; the Roman Catholics through the

Irish Nationalist members are of importance to the Government in the House; also it would not do to turn Jews and Roman Catholics, who vote Liberal perhaps as much as Tory, into a solid body of opponents. The other exception, the two days' denominational teaching in Church schools taken over by the State, is so thoroughly illusory that the nonconformists do not object to it. It looked well on paper and meant nothing.

Not being able to acknowledge the real motive of the Bill, sheer partisanship, the Government's difficulties in finding a decent pretext for it are natural enough. They have to argue that the religion that they are establishing is in effect the national religion. They say it represents the views of the majority of parents. Only on the acceptance of the standpoint of ascendancy is this a relevant argument at all. It is as much an offence against religious equality to force on a man or his child the religion of the majority, if he does not want it, as the religion of the smallest minority. Then they take refuge in the plea that it is not the religion of any one denomination. In other words they say, we will compensate you for not allowing you to have your own religion by insisting on your having what is nobody's religion. Any honest and religious man would say without hesitation, if you are going to have religious ascendancy at all, establish at any rate somebody's religion; a faith that some religious communion accepts. Teach it in its entirety, and at any rate you will be teaching religion, if not my religion. To establish undenominationalism is to establish a lie. If it were really undenominational, it would not be religion; for the least common religious denominator resulting would, as Dr. Clifford has honestly insisted, be history and literature; Scripture certainly, but not religion. On the other hand, if under the name undenominational there is given teaching which any denomination rejects, religion is being taught under false pretences: it is a lie. We agree that there is often enough good religious teaching in provided schools, for the simple reason that the teacher, without any intention of breaking rules, is giving denominational teaching. It may please Mr. Birrell that Christianity should be taught under false pretences: it does not please us.

What is the Government's answer to the proposal to give the right of entry to all denominations alike, every denomination to direct the religious teaching of its own children, those who desire for their children Cowper-Temple instruction to be allowed to have it, counting as a denomination by themselves? For this is the alternative to ascendancy, the only alternative, secularism being already negated. In argument they have no answer. Mr. Birrell admits that on paper, as he would say, there is no case against it; but he says—it is all he can say—it would not work. He has found out it would not work only since he discovered that the nonconformists do not like the plan, perhaps we might say since he discovered Mr. Lloyd-George did not like the plan. During the election he expressed himself more than once in favour of some such arrangement. So that Mr. Birrell gets votes for his party on one representation—he got the votes of many Liberal Churchmen on this—and when those votes have put him in power repudiates it. He may have been the victim of force majeure: that is not our affair. If he had the honesty to say that he still believes this to be the best settlement but circumstances were too strong for him, we could respect his attitude much more than we do now. We are perfectly aware there are practical difficulties to be met in adopting this settlement; but it is not for Mr. Birrell to shelter himself behind them. He should have considered the difficulties before he spoke approvingly of the proposal during the elections. There are difficulties, and on another occasion we will examine them in detail. As in everything else, we have to take the balance of advantage. A national denominational system, recognised, inspected, and regulated by the State, might have been the best solution: but facts have put this out of court. The dual system has worked but imperfectly. A State system imposing on all a religious compromise enormous numbers do not acquiesce in would be a monstrous injustice. There remains but the system of universal right of entry. It is equal, it

is consistent; its equality is positive; consisting not in saving everyone from having what he does not want but in allowing him to have what he does want.

THE BELGIAN ELECTIONS.

THE Belgian Elections have not, as was anticipated in some quarters, turned out the Government. The Catholic majority which has done so much for the prosperity of Belgium still prevails; but it has been reduced from twenty to twelve. Previous to the General Election there were ninety-three Catholics, forty-three Liberals, twenty-eight Socialists, and two Independents in the Lower Chamber. Under the somewhat complex arrangements prevalent in Belgium one half of the Chamber has to retire every two years. Eighty-five deputies had therefore to seek a renewal of their mandate, and these included fifty-four Catholics, twenty Liberals, ten Socialists and one Independent. The Catholics have lost one seat at Namur, Dinan, Courtrai and Antwerp, three to the Liberals and one to the Socialists. The Abbé Daens, a Christian Democrat, who always voted with the Opposition, has also been replaced by a Liberal. We may however add that Antwerp was only won by a fluke in 1902; when M. de Meestre was returned owing to the panic engendered by the riots, and that the loss of Courtrai was very nearly balanced by a win at Ypres. On the whole the Catholics have every reason to congratulate themselves. They are for almost every purpose a compact and an united party, whilst their opponents were only agreed in one respect, to turn out the present Government, and would, had they succeeded, have dissolved into their divergent factions of Liberals, of Socialists and of Independents.

The Opposition was united on a programme, the declaration of the Liberal Left, adopted on 21 December, 1901. This declaration embodied four great principles: compulsory education, universal suffrage, compulsory military service, and working-class legislation. Compulsory education does not yet prevail in Belgium. Beyond this primary instruction is essentially denominational in its character and it is not universal. A hundred thousand children attend no school whatever, the result in the main of the somewhat complex working of the educational system. The present suffrage is the work of one of the most brilliant statesmen in Belgium, M. Bernaert, at one time Prime Minister but now an independent member of the Catholic party. It was the product of deep and anxious thought and was based on the principle of universal suffrage. Every Belgian who reaches the age of twenty-five years is entitled to one vote if he has lived for one year in the same commune. Everyone over thirty-five years of age who is the head of a family is entitled to a second vote. A third vote is given to every voter who, being over twenty-five, has landed property worth £80, a corresponding yearly income from such property or £4 a year from the Belgian funds either directly or indirectly through the savings banks. Three votes are the maximum that any Belgian can enjoy but a third vote may also, where not otherwise secured, be acquired by a diploma of higher instruction or a certificate of higher secondary instruction. The Liberals and Socialists propose to simplify all this by universal suffrage, though many Liberals are prepared to retain the second vote given to the father of a family. Both sections of the Opposition are united in regarding the property vote as mischievous because it doubles the voting power of a large number of small yeomen and tenant-farmers who are the backbone of the Catholic party. The third reform is obligatory military service. As the law now stands a young man who has been chosen by lot to serve his country may, if he has sufficient funds at his disposal, secure as his substitute some poor beggar who is only too glad to make a living in this way. The Opposition are determined to wage war against this privilege. In the words of M. Hymans, the young Liberal leader, they wish to replace an army of paupers by a national army. There however their agreement ends. The Liberals desire to make this army efficient, but the Socialists in their anti-military fervour want to lower the period of compulsory military service to a minimum. They require

only a short period of instruction and would reduce the length of annual service with the colours to eight days. It is therefore more than probable that had the Opposition carried the day, they would soon have split over the constitution of the national army. The fourth point in the declaration of the Liberal Left is working-class legislation and the organisation of the fight against the ownership of land in mortmain. Here again we see how hollow is the union of the Opposition. The Liberal leaders are very reticent in their speeches and election addresses upon labour legislation, for they fear to alienate their wealthier manufacturing supporters. On the other hand working-class legislation is one of the most prominent factors in the Socialist programme.

We are well pleased with the success of the Catholics at the polls. They have done well for Belgium and we wish our friend and neighbour wealthy and prosperous. We welcome the Catholic success also because it means the victory of two principles which we hold dear: denominational education and the presence of a stable element in the electorate. The attitude of the Conservative press and notably of the "Times" on Belgian politics can hardly be described as honest. Here we are fighting the same battle as the Belgian Catholics. We are struggling to secure justice for denominational schools; how absurd the inconsistency of editors who whilst supporting us in England sacrifice this principle in their articles on foreign politics. Again they are illogical when they advocate plural voting in England but not in Belgium.

These are however but side issues. One great fact remains. The Catholic Cabinets which have governed Belgium for twenty-two years have given the country peace and prosperity without parallel in the place of that endless internal strife which prevailed before 1884. Their majority is a small one but it is sufficient so long as it remains united. When M. Bernaert framed his law he never expected a larger majority than eight, and considered such a majority sufficient in a Chamber of one hundred and seventy. The Liberals had only a majority of ten in 1878. The Catholic party must now close its ranks resolutely upon every issue and repair some of the anomalies in the educational system and they may win seats in 1908 at Ghent, Mons, Alost, S. Nicholas, Termonde and Hasselt. There must be no more disagreement within the party; no more disputes over the fortifications of Antwerp. M. Bernaert has rendered great and important services to his country in the past. He will do more for Belgium if he and his supporters forget what they were pleased to call the utilitarian, the mercantile or the material policy of the King. A majority of thirteen will stand no trifling. The fight during the next two years will be hotly contested. M. Paul Hymans, the Liberal leader, is a man of striking ability. M. van de Velde has made the Socialist party what it is. The Catholic Government have had to face many violent attacks in the past but their ability and their organisation have hitherto won the day. They must not give any opportunity to the enemy; for if they do, the gerrymandering of the constituencies will rob them of every chance of ever recovering lost ground. M. Smet van der Nayer is an able and an efficient Premier who has done much for his party and his country. He has many years before him and we sincerely trust that Belgium will enable him to devote those years to its progress and prosperity.

THE CITY.

MARKETS on the Stock Exchange are not weak; on the contrary they are disposed to firmness, but they are intensely dull. Consols are quoted at $\frac{1}{2}$ higher for the July account, and American rails are nearly all higher, though the gains during the week do not amount to more than fractions of the dollar except in the case of Atchisons, which have risen $1\frac{1}{2}$. Unions have risen $\frac{1}{2}$ and Baltimores $\frac{3}{4}$ and so on. The only exception to the all-prevailing stagnation and apathy have been Premier Diamond Deferred, which have fallen nearly 2 after their recent big rise; and Anglo-

American A's, which have been a strong market, rising at one time to 27 $\frac{3}{4}$, a price they have not touched within the memory of man. The meaning of all this is that for the time being speculation is dead. People who want to buy for investment, or to realise for money, or to change their securities, will always keep a certain number of brokers and jobbers employed, but it is a very small number. The banks and insurance companies and trust companies also contribute a certain amount of business every day. This is the cream of Stock Exchange business, and is whipped off by the richest and oldest established firms of brokers. But by far the greater number of brokers and jobbers depend for their income upon the speculative disposition of the public, and when that is dormant, one doesn't see how the majority of the members of the Stock Exchange earn a living wage.

Some of them no doubt turn to promoting new companies, or floating new issues, which accounts for the deluge of prospectuses which has, during the last few weeks, flooded the press, to the newspaper proprietors' delight and the bewilderment of the general public. We quite agree with the member of Parliament who described motor-omnibuses as "infernal machines", though we do not well see how, as he demanded, the number of them can be limited. There is apparently no end to the number of motor-omnibus companies anxious to share their profits with the public. The latest is the Gearless Motor-omnibus Co., which is distinguished from the others by the possession of a patent which drives without the chain-gearing. The abolition of the speed gear would seem to be a great advantage, as it would diminish the noise and vibration which makes these infernal machines such a nuisance to the town. But all patents are highly speculative. It is not without interest that the Chairman of this Gearless Motor-omnibus Co. is Chairman also of the Daimler (1904) Company which has gone ahead so remarkably in the last two years.

The issue of Korean Waterworks bonds was all underwritten, but we understand that the underwriters have had to take up a large percentage of their bonds, which shows the timid mood of the public. For we believe that this is a sound undertaking and that ultimately the underwriters will sell their bonds at a premium. On the other hand, the issue of new shares by the Argentine Great Western Railway, which was also underwritten, was over-applied for many times, and the underwriters got their commissions without having to take a share. When the promoters of an issue are known and trusted, there is plenty of money waiting to be used. The new Argentine Great Western shares were issued at £10 $\frac{1}{2}$, and are now quoted 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 $\frac{1}{4}$. There will no doubt be a good deal of "staggering" by the Trust companies and other specimens of the Monarch of the Glen, but as the shares are really worth £12 10s., and as the Stock Exchange has nothing else to divert its attention, we may see quite a lively market in these shares during the summer.

The chances of the Kaffir market do not seem tempting, particularly in view of the continued political agitation. It is said that sixty Radical members of Parliament have obtained a day from the complaisant Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman immediately after Whitsuntide for the discussion of the everlasting Chinese question. The motion, we are informed, will take the form of a censure on the Government for not insisting on the total and immediate expulsion of the Chinese from South Africa. Though it is not likely that such a motion will be carried, still it might have the effect of wringing some further concession to the extremists from the Government in the direction of Chinese prohibition. Then there is the West Ridgeway Committee whose report, it is said, will be in the hands of the Colonial Secretary before the end of the session. If so, there will certainly be more alarming debates on the Transvaal: so that, on the whole, we should be very reluctant to enter the Kaffir market on the long side. Possibly this time next year the new elections in the Transvaal may be over, and the mining industry on a firm basis. Then, but not till then, we may once more see a South African boom.

INSURANCE.

THERE are awkward corners to be negotiated in Life assurance as well as in motoring, and the Gresham Life Office bids fair to tackle safely its particular corner. The society has just made another valuation of its liabilities, and the result on the whole must be greeted with a feeling of relief. It is an open secret that some years ago the position of the Gresham was viewed with apprehension by the managers of other insurance companies. The great cause of the Gresham's difficulties was extravagant expenditure. From 1895 to 1900 it paid for commission and expenses £26 14s. out of every £100 received. For the past five years it has spent £19 5s. This difference of £7 9s. per £100 means something like £370,000 in five years, and it is to this decrease in expenditure that the surplus revealed by the valuation is mainly due. If the Gresham is to become a profitable office for people to assure in, this move in the direction of economy must be carried a great deal further. Another £5 must be knocked off the present expenditure of £19 5s. before it reaches the average expenditure of British Life offices.

Much more than economy is needed before the Gresham can give decent bonuses to its policyholders. The surplus in a Life office comes from the excess of the rate of interest earned by the funds above the rate used for calculating the liability; from the expenditure provided for being more than the expenditure incurred, and from the mortality experienced being more favourable than the mortality shown by the tables employed. Before the Gresham can realise large profits from interest it must calculate its liabilities by a lower rate of interest than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., which it now assumes. In order to do this—and it must be done—the profits of future years will have to be applied to providing stronger reserves than at present, instead of being paid away as bonuses. Other companies have accumulated stronger reserves in the past, and so afford a greater margin of security and larger sources of surplus than the Gresham, which will have to employ the profits of future years in providing normal sources of surplus.

The scandals connected with some of the American Life offices brought out very clearly the dangers of the Tontine bonus system, under which bonuses are given to those who survive a selected period—commonly twenty years—and to those only. It was clearly shown that the system was responsible for many of the worst abuses, and it has now been forbidden by the laws of the State of New York. Two-thirds of the participating policies in the Gresham are on the Tontine bonus system, and we are curious to see what course the society will adopt in regard to such policies. The existing ones must be kept on; but will it issue any more of the same kind now that the Tontine system has been so utterly discredited? The system has many advantages for an inferior Life office. If a man has to wait twenty years before receiving a bonus, he cannot compare the profits on his policy with the bonuses declared by other companies, and at the end of twenty years he can only swear. He has no remedy.

It is too frequently found that companies which give very poor bonuses yearly or quinquennially anticipate paying the most marvellous bonuses twenty years hence. Of course, the prophet proves wrong and the profits prove small; but it is very convenient to go along for twenty years without being found out. When bad results are declared policyholders are apt to complain, as witness the story told by a certain major. "I became—never mind how—the local secretary of an insurance company—never mind which—and of course knew nothing about the subject. But the manufacturers and tradesmen were pleased when I called on them, and they took policies. After a bit the head office sent me a lot of papers called bonus certificates, which meant that the people were to have their assurance made more without paying any extra. I thought they ought to be pleased, and posted a few of them. Every one of those policyholders came round making a fuss because they got so little. Well, I was not going to be bothered that way any more, so I took the whole lot and threw them on the fire". A little experience soon teaches, even in the matter of insurance.

"COLONEL NEWCOME."

CRITICISM of the performance at His Majesty's Theatre naturally divides itself under two heads, the adaptation of Thackeray's novel by Mr. Michael Morton, and the acting and mounting of the play by Mr. Beerbohm Tree and his company. Thackeray is more difficult to dramatise than any other novelist because, although "Vanity Fair" and "The Newcomes" are great human epics and therefore full of dramatic situations, it is not in them that the charm lies, but in "the facility and felicity of the style, imitating none, inimitable by any", if we may borrow Bacon's courtly description of James I.'s balderdash. Take such a touch of word-painting as the supper-scene at Mrs. Hobson Newcome's. "The refreshment was rather meagre. The foreign artists generally dashed downstairs, and absorbed all the ices, creams, &c. To those coming late there were chicken-bones, table-cloths puddled with melted ice, glasses hazy with sherry, and broken bits of bread". That kind of art cannot be reproduced on the stage, nor can the moralisings, at which it is the fashion to sneer in these days. Mr. Morton had therefore a very difficult task: he had to pick out and piece together in as effective a mosaic as might be the leading situations within the compass of a four-act play. Except in the first act, which is a hopeless and inartistic jumble, Mr. Morton has succeeded in presenting a series of pictures, the ball-room, Rosey's wedding, the squalid lodgings, and the Charterhouse, which to anyone who had not read the book—for that's the test—would give a very good idea of Thackeray's work and its imperishable moral. Mr. Morton would have done better if he had reproduced more of Thackeray's very words, and not made Colonel Newcome say "what pigmies we are, drest in a little brief authority", or Fred Bayham go on repeating "it mislikes me". The first act is a compound of the "Cave of Harmony", the dinner at Nerot's hotel in Clifford Street, and the banquet at a much later period in the Colonel's new mansion in Hyde Park Terrace. This attempt at selection and combination is a failure. When the dinner at Nerot's hotel was given, Clive was a schoolboy, and Barnes Newcome was a very young man. Both got tipsy, and Clive threw a wine-glass in his cousin's face for laughing at his father's song. All this business transferred to Hyde Park Terrace is absurd, for Clive was then on the point of being married, and the substitution of Lord Farintosh for Barnes is an indefensible departure from the original. Farintosh was dissipated, but Thackeray knew his world too well to draw him as an outrageous cad. Before discussing the actors I should like to say a word or two about their costumes. I do not set up as an authority on the dress of the early Victorian days; I merely take Richard Doyle's illustrations, according to which gentlemen had already abandoned frilled shirt-fronts and coloured swallow-tails, and wore large black satin "stocks" and frock-coats in the day, and something very like our present dress-suits at night, except that the trousers were practically "tights", and the white "choker" was wound round and round the neck like a stock and tied in an enormous bow. It this is correct (and it can be confirmed by other pictures), the costumes of Clive, Barnes, and Farintosh in the first act are quite wrong, and belong to the days of George IV. At the ball, in the second act, Clive appears in blue silk stockings with knee-breeches and coat of the same colour. Sir Barnes wears over his black-cloth tights a dress-coat of sapphire-blue velvet with satin facings. I do not think that in the 'forties young gentlemen so dressed themselves for a ball. The defect of Mr. Beerbohm Tree's make-up is that he looks, not like a lean sallow Anglo-Indian, but like a plump Royal duke, the Duke of Cambridge as he was, the Duke of Connaught as he will be. Seeing that Thackeray has left us an elaborate sketch of Colonel Newcome's evening kit at Mrs. Hobson's ball, blue coat and brass buttons, white waistcoat and white duck trousers, I cannot imagine why Mr. Tree did not adopt it.

Of the acting not so much need be said, as there were only three people who acted, Mr. Tree, Miss Marion Terry, and Miss Lilian Braithwaite. I do not

mind admitting that I came to scoff and remained to applaud. If I had been asked to choose from the whole range of English fiction the character which Mr. Beerbohm Tree would be most likely to make a mess of, I would unhesitatingly have spotted Colonel Newcome. Mr. Tree must not be angry if I say that he is (in my opinion) as far removed, physically and morally, from the type of the fine old English gentleman as one man can be from another of his species. So much the greater is the artistic triumph of this impersonation, which is not only one of the best things that Mr. Tree has ever done, but one of the most finished pieces of acting which I have ever seen on the English stage. Colonel Newcome in his uniform at the ball is splendid, and in his shabby clothes in the lodgings he strikes the true note of tragedy. The celebrated death-scene is spoiled by two defects: it is too protracted by repetition, and one is haunted at the last moments by the plumpness of German Royalty, which surely might have been toned down by a little alteration of make-up. The Colonel's peroration about his "honour", when he hears the bank has smashed, fell flat, not from any fault of Thackeray's or Mr. Tree's, but because of recent years we have heard too many of those speeches at company meetings. Mrs. Tree's acting of Mrs. Mackenzie is burlesque, not comedy. Mrs. Mackenzie was very Scotch, and Mrs. Tree is not in the least Scotch. No one who has ever heard an old Scotch-woman "nag", an art in which she is supreme, could have admired Mrs. Tree in the fourth act, though my neighbours seemed to enjoy it. Actors are supposed to be able to imitate any accent; why is it we never can get a Scotch man or woman on the stage with a tolerable accent? Miss Marion Terry's Madame de Florac is charming; the slight French accent is well done, though the make-up is too young and pretty, for Madame de Florac was nearly as old as Colonel Newcome. Ethel too is sweet and affecting, though I should have liked Miss Lilian Braithwaite better if she had been more saucy, at all events in the ball-room, and less tearful. Miss Bateman looked the part of Lady Kew well enough, but she scolded like a fishwife rather than a great lady. Miss Marie Löhr I have not seen before. She is pretty, and played the tiny part of Rosey cleverly, and with an amount of pert humour that suggests latent capacity. Mr. Basil Gill is a young actor with fine eyes and a fine voice, and it is not his fault that the rôle of Clive is stagey and conventional. Mr. Norman Forbes is too broad and blatant in his characterisation of Barnes Newcome: his conception lacks subtlety; he is not sufficiently diabolic. I believe that nobody reads Thackeray now. It is therefore well that Mr. Beerbohm Tree should remind the rising generation that there was such a person, and that he wrote great prose poems in the middle of the last century.

ARTHUR A. BAUMANN.

CORNISH WIND.

THERE is a wind in Cornwall that I know
 From any other wind, because it smells
 Of the warm honey breath of heather-bells
 And of the sea's salt; and these meet and flow
 With such sweet savour in such sharpness met
 That the astonished sense in ecstasy
 Tastes the ripe earth and the unvintaged sea.
 Wind out of Cornwall, wind, if I forget:
 Not in the tunnelled streets where scarce men breathe
 The air they live by, but wherever seas
 Blossom in foam, wherever merchant bees
 Volubly traffic upon any heath:
 If I forget, shame me! or if I find
 A wind in England like my Cornish wind.

ARTHUR SYMONS.

GERMAN ART.—I.

Burlington Fine Arts Club—Grafton Gallery—Prince's Club, Knightsbridge.

AUS alten Märchen winkt es—what a nation desires, or fears, and would fain conceal but may not, is told in its songs and nursery tales. The nation of London tells its simple secrets in "Dick Whittington" and the "Bailiff's Daughter of Islington", and the nation of London is rapidly becoming the nation of Europe, so there is a version of this even in modern Greece, competing with the last avatar of Dionysos as the "Drunken St. George". The Germans have many tales, but their own secret story is that of the Frog Princess or of the Beast that wooed Beauty. It is told in many other forms, but always there is the spell of ugliness outside, and the eager, beautiful soul within, the jewel in the toad's head. That uncouth Germany really has the anxious and beautiful soul we know, for a new art came into the world to deliver it, the art of music. The sound of Germany is gone out into all lands, has subdued and inspired them all, an awful and a radiant spirit. Yet Germany is not content, and still hankers and struggles to understand and possess the other art, the art of the eyes, the art of the outside. This too has been granted to her on one condition, that the outside should be German, that the beauty should be of art and not a beauty of divine beings; giants and gnomes, honest burghers and their wives, imphildren and bristling warriors, deep-eyed philosophers with landscape heads, creatures with frog-faces and tender hearts, all this and much more was to be possible, with incomparable faith and skill of line; but the enchantment was still to hold against Venus and Apollo, and to shut out the world of colour. Indomitable, Germany returns to the charge; her professor-artists storm the Alpine passes with the song of the Siren or of Mignon in their ears, her collections of art begin to put to shame our own lazy reckless ways; she knows more about Greek art, about Italian art, about French art, about English art than those countries ever dreamed of knowing themselves. She knows all about it, she has plans of all the corners of the Venusberg, sections of Apollo and Venus in every limb; she is ready to follow any path to the secret, from primitive to pointilliste; she has a complete set of the "Studio" on her shelves, with tributes by Mr. Baldry to the sincerity of many thousands of modern artists; but that hated and wholesome spell still holds.

For the truest tale of all is that of "Tannhäuser der Ritter gut" and what happened in his interview with that dear devil, Frau Venus. But it is only the first part of the story, as usually told, that is exact. He did enter the Venusberg, he did, after listening to a beautiful concert, sit down to the feast, and even the little incident of the shudder of Venus when he asked for salt, and the spilling of it by the attendants, probably represents some fact distorted by his nerves. After that point his account of what took place cannot be trusted. The good wine did go to his head and give him courage. But to assert that "soon he became confident, his humour took a jovial turn, and when the fair lady asked him if he knew what it was to love, he answered her with kisses of flame" is to play with history. What really happened was this. For a few moments soft thoughts assailed him, and he was about to sink upon her breast. But as he looked at her with more assurance and closer scrutiny a horrible suspicion checked him. "Is not this type", she heard him mutter, "already published in the 'Jahrbuch des Instituts' by my highly-honoured colleague, Furtwängler, who rightly believed himself to be in the presence of a Græco-Roman repetition of a lost original"? "Will you permit me, madame", he proceeded, "to verify certain proportions"? and drew from his pocket a folding foot-rule and a pair of calipers. To these remarkable attentions Venus submitted with a good grace, thinking that this, perhaps, was the northern fashion of making love. But when he seated himself again, jotted down some rapid notes, and poured forth a lengthy disquisition on her person, she was fairly puzzled. It had a distant resem-

blance, it is true, to the Song of Songs, in its method of enumeration; but the figures were too much of an arithmetical cast for a lyrical rhapsody. And when he wandered from this subject to others, asked her what she thought of the Glasgow School, and with shining eyes recommended her to refurnish in the style of L'Art Nouveau, she felt that the good Knight was either making sport of her or was no fitting object of her favour. Divine wrath shook that beautiful form, the lights went out, with a rushing sound the vault fell apart, the battlements folded themselves away in a wreath of mist, and the good Knight found himself alone, with his notebook, on the cold hillside. The subsequent pilgrimage to Rome is true in the main, but with mythical accretions; its object was not a visit to the Pope, but to the Vatican Museum.

Another name for the hero of this story is Albert Dürer. For he too, a northern dandy, with golden "lockes crulle", and rather high cheekbones, wandered out of his way, the eternal artist, along the Italian road in search of Apollo.

D. S. MACCOLL.

THE IMPATIENT ANGLER.

THAT "undervaluer of money", Sir Henry Wotton, the Provost of Eton, would speak of angling as a moderator of passions and a calmer of unquiet thoughts. Walton knew him well, and in a charming touch or two of friendship tells us how his "forraign imployments in the service of this Nation" and choice gifts of mind and character made his company esteemed as one of the delights of mankind. Wotton for his part painted a picture of Walton in the kind of colour that lasts for ever:—

"There stood my Friend with patient Skill,
Attending of his trembling Quill."

So angling was given the character of the soothing, the quiet pursuit, ideal pastime for gentle, above all for patient, folk: and nothing can ever persuade people to the contrary. To be an angler, no matter what the branch of angling, you must be of an exceedingly patient disposition, just content to sit for hours on the bank or in a boat, waiting for a nibble—this is the notion.

There are branches in angling of which this picture of a fisher is a true likeness, as good of many a fisher to-day as it was of Walton or Wotton—of Cotton, one is not quite so sure, for about him there is a suggestion of the high spirit and dash of cavalier youth that does not quite accord with these qualities. But there are other ways of angling which we really cannot honestly associate with this contemplative calm that Wotton would seem to have claimed for the whole art. Can we claim it for salmon fishing? It is indeed doubtful whether the salmon angler is usually of the Wotton temperament. Going over in thought keen salmon fishers we know, are patience and calm and gentleness exactly the qualities in them that stand out? Sir Herbert Maxwell's angling stories are glorious. There is one he can tell about an original named Brownie of the Tyne which one cannot forget: how Brownie would house and button away his prodigiously long Piccadilly weepers under his coat whilst he was angling; but once when he was engaged with a lively salmon, one of them escaped, was caught in the revolving handle of the reel, and wound up tightly to his cheek. The salmon in the end was killed, but the whisker had to be shorn off close ere man and fish were fairly parted. People who have felt the grand rush and vibration of a running salmon, and who know what it is by accident to touch the line then, can appreciate the awful plight of that man. But as to the patience question, Sir Herbert Maxwell can tell a still richer tale of Randolph Churchill as salmon angler; of how, crost by the gillie and smashed by the great salmon, he flung away his rod in a towering rage. Patience, peace and contemplation—one sometimes wonders whether, after all, they are characteristic of any style of fly-fishing for salmon or trout, outside the region of tradition. In dry-fly fishing for trout in chalk and limestone waters, patience hardly comes in, save in the large sense of suffering.

This fishing is in truth just a passion among those who practise it very keenly. It absorbs and rules them. It is "moderator of passions" in this—being itself a master passion it makes the man forget for the time all other passions. "A diversion of sadness", Wotton also called angling; the dry-fly is this so far as all outside cares and sadness go, for its own are often so poignant, and so imminent nearly always, that it will not let us for a moment brood on any other. The anxieties of this style of angling—driving a hair-fine cast with one little floating fly at the tip to a fastidious trout—for good or ill, are not to be denied.

At this time of year, with mayfly out on most of the dry-fly streams and the largest and daintiest trout conscious of it more or less, the angler, to say the truth, is often the reverse of the ideal of "calm and sweet peace" which was in Wotton's thoughts. Rule out that spirit of competition or rivalry which unhappily infects some of us at times, the little imp that tickles a man with cheap pleasure now and then because he has got a brace or two of good fish on a hard day when others have nothing, or that tantalises him when it is the others who have trout and he none: rule this wretched thing out utterly, unpeople the great Godlike world of the June river of all rival or competitor, be an angler self-poised and independent—there yet remains so much to keep the fisher at high tension. The rise of good trout at the mayfly is so uncertain: it may not take place at all, the trout preferring the nymphs of the fly under water as they mount to the surface: it may be fast and furious, great trout in all directions sucking down the mayflies with earnestness for a short half-hour and then turning back to the nymphs. In that half-hour who, knowing the sure close of the thing is a matter of minutes—that it is now or never—can be lukewarm? And how, if at the end of that half-hour of crowded life the man has not the trout, can there be the resignation, the patience and serenity which people associate with Wordsworth's blameless sport? No, it is more than doubtful whether "our wonderful recreation", as the Foreign Secretary describes it, is the sure way to serenity, at least not this of the floating fly. Passion rather than patience seems to be the feature of it. Only, once he has the trout, and the rise is done, he can relax, and forgetting rod and line steep himself in the dreaming glory of things; stand on the bridge of the Test where the river widens and boils through the trembling lasher by the mill. The great hawthorn at the edge, one sheet of bloom and its scent the very aura of May, is not whiter than that rush of spray. It is life and strength to stand here in the full day-time when cirro-stratus is spreading its filmy cloud forms, wisp and stipple and fleece, over an immense sky; or in the evening when Venus burns in the after-glow and Antares flickering red is up in the south.

GEORGE A. B. DEWAR.

THE ESTATES OF BRITTANY.*

FEW English tourists who stand in the Parliament House of Rennes, realise that they are in the presence of an historic tragedy. Brittany was the pioneer in the French struggle for liberty and Brittany has reaped nought from the victory of the revolution but the destruction of her nationality and the persecution of her faith. Of this interesting and little known chapter in the history of the nations we would here say a few words.

When by the successive marriages of the Duchess Anne with Charles VIII. and Louis XII. Brittany passed under the direct rule of France her constitution was guaranteed to her by more than one solemn international treaty. By these treaties no tax could be legally raised in Brittany save with the consent of her Estates. If the French King sought by royal edict to circumvent the Estates, the Parlement of Rennes, representing the higher magistracy of the Duchy, had both the power and the will to refuse to register such unconstitutional decrees.

* "Brittany." By Mortimer Menpes. Text by Dorothy Menpes. London: Black. 1906. 20s. net.

Consider the constitution of these estates, which to a patriotic Breton recalled all that was glorious in ancient Rome. There were three orders—Clergy, Noblesse and Tiers état. The first order comprised the bishops of the Duchy and a few other high ecclesiastics. In the second every gentleman born in Brittany had the right to sit, and the roll at one time contained a thousand names. This assembly had its affinities to a Polish Diet, though it was hardly as picturesque seeing that the Breton noble was more often a sailor than a soldier and generally came on foot, an old cutlass by his side. The Tiers état had only forty-two deputies. Once these had been genuine representatives of great burgher guilds; later on they were mayors of towns who were only Crown nominees and other like officials. Once every other year the Estates met at one or other of the towns of Brittany and held their deliberations sometimes in a church, sometimes in the hall of a convent. The fact to remember is that the Breton Estates and Parlement in the sixteenth century triumphed where the Lords and Commons of England failed. Arbitrary taxation they effectively checked, and unlike the English legislators of Tudor days they knew their will on religious questions and had it. More interesting still, these wild wolf-hunting, sea-loving nobles voted sums of money to reward the researches of scholars into Breton history.

Let us take a glance at the Breton legislature, when it is on the eve of its great struggle with Louis Quatorze. The picture is drawn by the Marquise of Sévigné. The Estates open at Vitré under the presidency of the governor, the Duke de Chaulnes, with the usual political festivals, which seem to the Breton peasant like the revels of fairies on the moors. They dine at two tables in the same room. The Duke presides at the one, his Duchess at the other, and there are fourteen covers at each table. So tall are the pyramids of fruit that the doors have to be raised to receive them. After dinner there are minuets danced with an air that Versailles cannot rival, mingled with the native dances of Brittany. And even when the Estates are at work on the more serious business of roads and taxes, the dances and games continue, three times a week there is a play, and three or four hundred pipes of wine are drunk.

In a short time this peaceful and festive land is in a revolution. Louis and Louvois are imposing taxes on stamped paper and tobacco without the consent of the Estates and in defiance of the refusal of the Parlement to register their edicts. The Breton nobles are furious, and the Breton people insurgent. True in Rennes our Duchess de Chaulnes escapes with a cat flung in her face: but in the forests of Morbihan the peasant bands (the *bonnets bleus*) are in arms, asking not alone for the repeal of the hateful edicts but for the full Armorican liberties, which have a strange resemblance to the liberties which in a later date France asks under the name of the Rights of Man. Already have the flames of burning châteaux reddened the midnight skies, when a religious revival, the work of Jesuit preachers, turns the heart of the peasantry. As submissive now as they were aforesaid riotous, these peasants yield themselves without a murmur to the royal officers, and a line of gibbets marks Louis' revenge. For the rest let Madame de Sévigné speak: "C'est une désolation terrible. Enfin vous pouvez compter qu'il n'y a plus de Bretagne."

But when the Grand Monarque has sunk to his unhonoured grave the voice of freedom awakes in the Armorican land once more. The question is not now of stamped paper, but of import duties; still the principle is the same as of old. The Commandant of the Province, a Gascon soldier, the Marshal de Montesquiou writes to the Regent at Versailles, "Il faut ôter de l'esprit de cette province qu'ils ont des droits particuliers". Before this new struggle ends in tragedy, it has its touch of comedy and comedians. The unconstitutional Commandant engages a theatrical company to act a comedy at Rennes. The Parlement forbids the company to act, whereupon Versailles directs that the play shall take place. The actors play in consequence to an empty house and the Commandant has the satisfaction of knowing that the players must enter the Breton equivalent of a Bankruptcy Court. Tragedy however supervenes when the lettres de cachet of the

Commandant have driven the Breton noblesse to plot a desperate insurrection amid those wild forest trees where of yore Merlin wooed Vivien. There is a talk of aid from Spain and one Spanish ship enters Quiberon Bay (place of ill omen to the Breton noblesse) only to sail back. The end comes when the bearers of some of the noblest names in Brittany bow their heads to the headsman's sword at Nantes on the 26th of March, 1721.

Henceforth there is war fierce and bitter twixt Versailles and Brittany. And the fight in which the noblest hero was the old lawyer Chalottais rages with treacherous intervals of repose until at last the example of Brittany stirred all France. But on that day in 1788 when the delegates from the three Estates of Brittany who have come to demand the release of the Breton representatives who had been thrown into the Bastille for their protests against the last raid of Louis XVI.'s Ministers on the rights of the Parlement are welcomed en fête in Paris, the death-knell of Breton freedom is sounded. The deputies of the Tiers état of the Duchy have gone forth nationalists with the cries of "Vive le Parlement" "Vive Bretagne" ringing in their ears; they return cosmopolitan enthusiasts for the "Rights of Man". Their cry suggested to them by the Parisian journalists is now for the abolition of aristocratic privileges and for an election of the Breton deputies who are soon to act in the States-General of the kingdom not (as the Breton constitution directs) by their own provincial estates, but by the electors voting in their different communes according to Necker's scheme. Swiftly spreads the new gospel among the Breton bourgeoisie; while the noblesse declare that the old constitution under which Brittany has so long preserved her liberties and escaped the worst part of the heavy burdens that weigh on the rest of France shall go down unchanged to posterity. Still though the dread thunder cloud is in the sky the last meeting of the Estates that Brittany is ever to see opens as gaily as ever in Rennes with the customary dances and feasts. It is not long however ere the Comte de Thiard, the erotic poet and friend of Lafayette, who for his misfortune is Commandant of the province, is face to face with a Breton civil war. The Tiers état, with Moreau, now but a young lawyer, to lead them, are in arms against the noblesse and Parlement. Blood flows in the streets and the mob threatens to burn the hall in which some hundreds of nobles have blockaded themselves. With difficulty the Governor arranges terms between the combatants, but the die is cast. The Breton Tiers état sends its delegates to the National Assembly, from which the haughty noblesse remain aloof. They have bound themselves by an oath never to sit in a States-General unless elected as their old constitution directs, and on many a field of battle will they write that oath in blood.

A few months have passed and Brittany is no more. The National Assembly has voted the destruction of its Parlement, and the President of that august tribunal stands before the Assembly's bar and appeals to the sacred treaties by which France has guaranteed her freedom and constitution to Brittany. From the insolence of Mirabeau and his atheistic friends the old magistrate appeals to posterity, and posterity that knows how hard the French yoke has borne on the religion and language of Brittany should do a tardy justice to the protest, which that day revolutionary frenzy spurned. In the heart of the misguided land itself, now that it is too late, there rises a cry for a new convocation of its Estates, for a reconciliation of noblesse and Tiers état—for the preservation of the Bourbon monarchy itself under the ermine of Brittany. It is in vain. On 23 February 1790 the hapless King signs the decree that blots out Brittany from the roll of nations.

Yet the lost constitution of Brittany is to have its martyrs, who are likewise to be the martyrs of the fallen monarchy. In the mausoleum by the mysterious town of Auray a silent nun still shows the relics of the Breton nobles, whom in 1795 the British fleet carried to their doom on the shores of Quiberon Bay. On that drear and barren coast with the savage sea on one side and Hoche's pitiless bayonets on the other the nobles of Armorica who had come to aid their land, when all too

late it had risen against the hypocrisies of the Revolution, laid down their lives for the lilies of the Bourbons and the ermine of Brittany. And the wild waves that beat on that weird and haunted shore still sing to all lovers of the past the dirge of Brittany a nation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BRIDGE.

WHEN bridge was once firmly established, the necessity arose for a recognised and authorised code of laws for the new game, and a committee of three members of the Portland was appointed in December 1895 to draft the required code. The task was a difficult one, as their knowledge of the game was at that early stage a very elementary one, but the work was so skilfully and successfully done that the code of laws then drawn up lasted, practically unaltered, for a period of ten years, and stood the test of covering all the debatable points of the game. These laws were issued early in 1895, and in July of the same year they were submitted to a joint committee of the Portland and Turf Clubs, and, being passed with a few unimportant alterations, they became the standard laws of English bridge, and remained so until another joint committee of the same clubs issued the "Revised Laws of Bridge", at the end of 1904.

In February 1895 Messrs. T. De La Rue and Co. published "The Laws of Bridge, with a Guide to the Game", by "Boaz". With the exception of the small pamphlet already mentioned this was the first bridge book ever published in England, or, as far as we know, in any other country. A second edition of it appeared later in the same year, giving the authorised code of laws after they had been passed by the joint committee, and this was followed by two other editions in 1896 and 1897. In March 1898 a fifth edition was published, together with a short treatise entitled "How to Play Bridge", by "Badsworth". "Badsworth" was the nom-de-plume of a well-known member of the Portland Club, one of the ablest exponents of the game, and this little brochure remained the standard book on the subject for some three years.

In 1899 a book on bridge was published in India by "John Doe", and an English edition of the same work was published in London in 1900. Also in 1899 appeared "Bridge, and How to Play It", by Archibald Dunn, junior; but by far the most important book on the game published in that year, although it is now very little known, was the "Pons Asinorum, or Bridge for Beginners", by A. G. Hulme-Beaman. Mr. Hulme-Beaman, author of "Twenty Years in the Near East", started as a student dragoman in the Levant. He was always good at games and sports, and a man of singularly bright intellect. He wrote of the game of bridge from many years' personal experience. Here again we find the value of the No Trump call given as ten points per trick instead of twelve, and Mr. Beaman writes of the methods of "the well-known veteran bridge-player, M. Mavrogordato", which goes to prove that the game of bridge was no novelty in those climes, but an institution of many years' standing.

It was not until 1901 that any really standard work on the subject made its appearance. In that year Messrs. T. De La Rue and Co., who have ever been the pioneers of card literature, published, almost simultaneously, "Bridge Abridged, or Practical Bridge", by W. Dalton, and "Hellespont on Bridge", "Hellespont" being the pseudonym of a gentleman, residing in India, who is said to have had great experience of the game as it is played in the East. These two books have both had a large sale, and both have run through several editions, and they still hold their place as the two standard works on the game. About the same time, or possibly a little earlier, an excellent elementary book for beginners was written by Mrs. J. R. Tennant, entitled "The A B C of Bridge". This little book also had, as it well deserved, a large sale, and many were the players whom it initiated into the mysteries of the game. It still sells.

After these came a perfect flood of bridge literature, good, bad, and indifferent; going over the same old ground, again and again, and adding little of interest to what had been already written on the subject. There

were a few notable exceptions, such as "Badsworth's" larger book, published in 1903, Mr. J. B. Elwell's two excellent books, published in New York, and Mr. Foster's many books, published both in New York and in London; but most of the subsequent works were little more than a repetition, more or less paraphrased, of what had been written in the earlier textbooks.

There never was any game about which so many people have aired their different opinions. A study of the bibliography of the game shows us that between 1901 and 1906 something like one hundred books were published dealing entirely with the practice of bridge, and the list is not yet completed. They still come. Hardly a week passes without some fresh aspirant to literary fame setting forth his views under an alluring title. The marvel is how all these books can possibly command a sale and who finds time to read them, yet it is fair to suppose that the majority of them are read.

It is certainly desirable for the beginner to read some standard book in order to learn the theory and practice of the game, but where is the beginner nowadays? Nearly every would-be player has served his novitiate and has learned the ordinary routine of the game, and we strongly recommend such an one, if he has the laudable ambition to improve his play, to model his game on the precepts of some one well-known author, or on the practice and example of some one good player of his acquaintance, and not to allow himself to be muddled by reading every new idea which is presented to the public.

WOMEN AND CHESS.

IT may well be asked in these days what is the position of women in the chess world. There is no doubt that the game is becoming more popular with them. Ladies' clubs are being established in various parts of the country; special inducements are held out for their patronage by the promoters of national and international tournaments, and articles on the game appear regularly in journals which cater specially for them. As a matter of fact, women have always played and taken part in the game, though probably never to the same extent as now. It is, therefore, remarkable that in the whole of its enormous literature there does not appear the name of any woman among the stars of the first, second, or third magnitude. One may go through volume after volume containing thousands of games and not find a single one played by women which any editor has thought worthy of a permanent record.

When the question has been raised before, it has been involved with that of the intellectual superiority of one sex over the other. To-day the answer to this would be totally inadequate and inconsequential. There are men in the front rank of players at the present moment who by no stretch of the imagination or the term can be said to occupy their position on account of exceptional intellectual endowments. Our own opinion is, that while the game always appeals to intellectual men and women, intellect is not the only factor which makes the great player.

A careful examination of the games of players whom the world recognises as great reveals the fact that the faculties and qualities of concentration, comprehensiveness, impartiality, and above all a spark of originality, are to be found in combination and in varying degrees. The absence of these qualities in woman explains why no member of the feminine sex has occupied any high position as a chess player.

There are many women who are earnest students of chess, whose knowledge of the theory, principles, and all the accoutrements of the game, is phenomenal. But mere knowledge can make nobody great. Taking results, good judgment is much superior to knowledge imperfectly applied. In bridge the same thing appears. Every player will always admit that he prefers a partner with fair judgment to one who knows every book on the game and every convention that has been established, but who, nevertheless, has not got enough judgment to apply his knowledge at the right time.

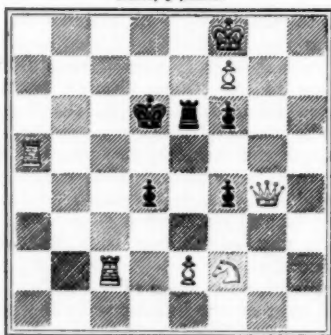
It might be said that all the before-mentioned qualities are necessary in other walks of life where women do hold their own. But there is a very important difference between chess and other arts. It takes two to play a game of chess, and what is more, they have to oppose each other. And it might be observed, incidentally, that the critic cannot make or mar the reputation of a chess player in the same way as it is alleged he has the power in the arts, on the stage or in literature. Results are the things which count in chess. Void of any element of luck, winning is the only absolute test of superiority at the time.

In the composition of chess problems, the element of competition is absent and many women are considered good composers. Here the critic can and does exert a little influence. But when we look at the winners of tournaments for composing problems the names of women are again conspicuous by their absence.

It seems quite clear that women have so far been unable to hold their own in open competition. Whether, or to what extent, it is a matter of physical constitution, we are unable to say. But a change in the spirit of women chess players might work wonders. The existence of "ladies' chess clubs" is a means of perpetuating mediocrity among its members. Of course, if exclusiveness is more important to them than improved play, they will continue in this way. If any women have any idea or ambition of holding a high position in the chess world apart and independent of sex, they will endeavour to meet all comers in practice and so pave the way to take part in general tournaments. No player has ever existed who has been more than a shade superior to his contemporaries, and if women continue to play only with women the best of them cannot hold their own in a general tournament, because of the poor standard of the play they have been engaged in.

PROBLEM 79. By F. R. ROWLAND.

Black, 5 pieces.



White, 7 pieces.

White to mate in two moves.

Solutions to above will be duly acknowledged.

KEY TO PROBLEM 78: 1. Q-R8. R-Q5. 2. Q-K5 ch, &c.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE RIGHT OF ENTRY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

The Athenæum, 30 May.

SIR,—One suggestion for the settlement of the religious education difficulty which has found many supporters is that known as the "right of entry". It would make so-called "undenominational" teaching the rule in all schools, but would allow distinctive teaching to be given by the various denominations to the children of those who desired it, on certain days, within school hours. The objection urged against it is that it would introduce confusion into the working of the schools, and would be impracticable. In answer

to this may I state that such a system actually did exist, and I believe still exists, in a school of which I was once a manager? It is a voluntary school in a small country town, where the population is about equally divided between the Church and Nonconformity. The trust deed of the school provides that "the religious teaching shall be that of the Church of England and shall be under the supervision of the clergyman of the parish". But there is a further proviso that the managers shall be bound to provide other suitable religious teaching for those children whose parents do not wish them to learn the Catechism. In practice, the Prayer Book and Catechism were taught on two mornings in the week, and any children whose parents wished it received "simple Bible teaching". As a matter of fact the number of children so withdrawn at any one time never amounted to a dozen in a school of two hundred. Why could not such a system be made general?

Yours faithfully,

BARTON R. V. MILLS.

[Our correspondent's plan of "right of entry", applied to all schools alike, would be better than the Government Bill; but it is not what is meant by the phrase as used in Parliament this week. General right of entry means that every denomination shall have the right to teach its own children its own religion; the religious teaching of the school being on a denominational basis. "Undenominational" teaching would not exist except for the children of parents who expressly preferred it. We strongly object to any general basis of what is dishonestly called "simple Biblical teaching". Undenominationalism is never simple and often not Biblical.—ED. S. R.]

NEW TRAINING COLLEGE GRANTS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Stockwell, 23 May, 1906.

SIR,—In these days of irrelevant sound and fury, the teacher, who has for years been giving religious training in the "secular" as much as in the "sacred" subjects of his syllabus, and who knows from experience what is and what is not possible and profitable in class teaching, says little, though he thinks the more. Feeling that his views are not wanted, he does not put them forward, though he knows that eventually on him must rest the carrying out of whatever arrangement is arrived at. The present discussions tend, moreover, to divert public attention from the administrative changes which go on continually in the educational world.

Mr. Acland stated recently that the Government was about to help local authorities to start new training colleges. The training of teachers is, of course, the crux of the education problem, and the importance of this work should make it a national and not a local business. The existing system is already dislocated by the fact that most training colleges are attached to various ecclesiastical organisations; and educationists do not welcome the prospect of territorial cleavage adding to the complexities which already result from the denominational cleavage in the training college system.

Under present conditions, some local authorities require the teachers, whom they help to get trained, to promise to return to their service after the training course is finished; and, if the various local authorities, or groups of authorities, establish each its own training college, this system of the territorial restriction of the teacher is likely to become widespread. There is no need to enlarge upon the educational and social disadvantages of such a serfdom; if training colleges were national institutions no such restriction would be dreamt of; and if the Exchequer gives financial help to local authorities in this direction, it should insist that no such restriction shall be imposed upon the students. It would also be as well if these students were to be declared free to take posts in any schools for which their qualifications and experience fitted them. At present a King's scholar is restricted to service in elementary schools. There is, in other words, no educational reason why elementary and secondary teachers

should not be trained side by side. They are being so trained already in more than one institution.

I remain, yours faithfully,

FRANK J. ADKINS.

CLOSED CHURCHES.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—May I ask a question of your readers? I have been only a short time in England and so I am unable by myself to understand fully the religious question. I believed that the Sunday in England was a religious day used for the rest of the body and the cultivation of the soul, so I expected to find everywhere the religious buildings open always on Sundays to those who wished to go apart for a while and meditate quietly. But I have found that this is not so; active instruction is given, but afterwards many churches and, as I have experienced, all cathedrals are locked up. Are not rest and meditation in sacred surroundings also valuable, and is not the Sunday, when people have leisure, a suitable day? I have found them often open on other days.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

HATRAS RAYML.

EVGUËNI ONËGUINE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Lyceum Club, Piccadilly, W., 28 May, 1906.

SIR,—If Mr. Harold Gorst's critique of Tchaikovsky's "Evguëni Onëguine" be a specimen of his "moderately expressed criticism" we may, I think, look forward with considerable excitement to some occasion when he may see fit to be "immoderate". That his views upon Russian music were as he informs us made in Leipzig surely fully bears out my contention as to the source of most of our press opinions anent Russia. Leipzig has certain hallowed, though now somewhat ancient, musical traditions but it is scarcely the city in which one would willingly choose to study the great schools of modern opera including even that of Germany. With regard to the disappointment expressed, according to Mr. Gorst, by "one of the most famous singers of to-day, whose name is celebrated throughout Europe, on hearing Tchaikowsky's opera", and her subsequent refusal to sing in it, I have no reply. But I believe that any competent Russian musician will endorse me when I say that the subtle and extremely difficult rôle—musically, dramatically and psychologically—of Tatiana (the chief soprano in the opera) has of late years become a test for gauging the artistic capacities of the finest lyrical actresses in Russia. I understand that at the forthcoming performance of "Onëguine", promised at Covent Garden, there will be at least an element of native art introduced; it is to be hoped in any case that no Anglo-German omissions or additions to Tchaikovsky's score will be permitted, notably the suicide of Onëguine, the utter absurdity of which struck Mr. Gorst, and very justly, at the recent Moody-Manners production.

Mr. Bloch, I notice, adheres to the German method of reproducing Russian names. The SATURDAY REVIEW is possibly the only journal in London which permits what Mr. Kinloch aptly terms "euphonic transliteration in the vernacular". This is at least a step towards an acquaintance with the Russian language itself. I venture to maintain that the Russian language, literature and music are inextricably linked together, and only when we have a knowledge of the first two are we in any sense competent to express an adequate opinion upon their musical outcome in Russian opera, be it that of Tchaikovsky or any other Russian composer.

Yours faithfully,

A. E. KEETON.

"BY THE SKIN OF MY TEETH."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Narborough, Leicester, 22 May, 1906.

SIR,—The employment of the above phrase by Mr. Justice Channell during the recent hearing of the Yarmouth election petition, with the repetition of it by his then colleague, Mr. Justice Grantham, in the course of the Maidstone petition afterwards, leads me to point out that these words so generally used are not only a misquotation, but a perversion of the meaning conveyed in the poem by the true text. Reference to the Book of Job xix. 20 will show the protagonist as made to say, not "I am escaped by the skin of my teeth", but "with the skin"—meaning, not "I have escaped with great difficulty", but "destitute of everything I possessed, just as the teeth are destitute of skin". The latter is an appropriate and forcible, the former an absurd metaphor, and it is high time it were relegated to the same category as "creating a Frankenstein", and similar corrupt texts.

Yours,

W. J. GARNETT.

"BIRITCH."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

21 Ashley Gardens, Victoria Street, S.W.
28 May, 1906.

SIR,—Absence from England prevented me from seeing yours of the 19th until now. Between 1880-4 I spent a considerable time in Constantinople and Asia Minor, where I played what was there called "Biritch or Russian whist". I was then living, while in England, at Cromwell Road and introduced the game to many of my English friends, who liked it so much that they asked me to have the rules printed. Hence the copy you have seen at the British Museum, which you will see catalogued there under my name, and it was entered at Stationers' Hall in 1886 or a little earlier. I have only one copy left which I now send, but beg you kindly to return. I have no doubt many of my friends have still a copy, and I sent one to the "Field" in 1894, when "Bridge" was being started in England. I think "Biritch" is a preferable game to its modified form of "Bridge"—especially as regards the rubber points.

"Biritch" was attributed to the Russian colony at Constantinople; in my time the dominating social and political element.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN COLLINSON.

THE EVOLUTION OF BRIDGE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

23 May, 1906.

SIR,—Allow an old whist player a few remarks upon the subject of this article on the evolution of the game of bridge in your last issue. They might be of assistance in elucidating the mystery supposed to exist concerning its origin.

Whilst Englishmen stuck tenaciously to their old game of short whist under strictest rules during the last century such rules did not prevail on the Continent, where no exclusive whist clubs or committees of sufficient authority exist to frame them for general observation. Consequently whist was played in different ways and with different scores according to fancy and previous agreement in different countries, towns or societies. In these circumstances the fashions naturally changed from time to time; for instance playing with a dummy the dealer or his partner exposing his cards came gradually into favour; notably in France, where this became the general custom long before bridge was introduced. The dealer choosing the trump suit was a prominent feature of the variety of whist called "cayenne", which had been in general use in Germany and Austria for many years, when I first learned it over sixty years ago, and it has not been displaced there entirely by tarelache and bridge to this day. Cayenne is played in

the following way: the second pack is also cut after shuffling and the suit thus turned and left exposed called *cayenne*. The dealer chooses the trump suit, and in case this is *cayenne*, tricks and honours count double. The option to pass over the choice of trumps to his partner, as also the addition of the call for No Trumps, form later variations of this game. "*Tarelache*" or Russian whist came into general favour all over the Continent about the 'fifties. Its modifications from the original whist have obviously been borrowed from "preference". This game is much favoured in Russia and Austria and played by three persons with a pack of thirty-two piquet cards, and has lent to *tarelache* the value of each of the four suits, "*misère*" and No Trumps, also the overbidding round the table.

In its highest perfection this game is played in Russia and elsewhere at the present time with overbidding, also the number of tricks any hand may undertake to win, two tricks in any suit counting more than one in a higher suit or No Trumps and three tricks more than two, &c.—a variation which has likewise been derived from preference.

Evidently bridge is a joint product of both varieties of whist, the ancient *cayenne* and *tarelache*, having derived the naming trumps and passing it over from the former and the value of each suit and No Trumps from the latter, the French having added their partiality to playing with a dummy. I remember having read in an English treatise on bridge that it was supposed to have been invented in the diplomatic society of Constantinople. This does not appear unlikely, as it would lead to the conclusion that Russians, Germans, and French had a hand in it.

An explanation of the apparent anomaly that No Trumps in bridge count twelve, instead of ten as they would do in the regular upward sequence of values, may consist in the probability that it was played originally with "*misère*", to which the value of ten points would have corresponded with its rank in *tarelache*.

A CONTINENTAL WHISTPLAYER.

POPULATION MOVEMENTS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—Two articles have lately appeared in the columns of a contemporary which profess to define the losses at certain ages sustained by the populations of the rural parts of England and Wales in the two decennial periods 1881-91 and 1891-1901. The inquiry shows that such losses of population have been both continuous and widespread. Upon the whole, it would seem that of those born in rural districts about one-half of the men and two-fifths of the women gradually remove from those districts and find other homes in which to settle, the greatest movement occurring at ages 10-20.

From other sources I gather that in 1891-1901 there were added to our population, almost wholly in the more progressive towns and counties, about 225,000 male and 175,000 female strangers, who however included many from Scotland and Ireland, as well as British subjects born abroad. In the same period we sent away nearly 350,000 native-born men and 118,000 women, the men of course including a considerable number of soldiers, who at the date of the census were in South Africa. The emigrants (including soldiers) were drawn from all parts of the country, Cornwall, Cumberland, and some of the southern counties ranking proportionately highest, North Wales and Lincoln lowest. There would also seem to have been a transference of nearly 180,000 persons of each sex from the rural to the urban and industrial and other actively progressive districts within England and Wales.

In the ten years 1881-91 there was a loss of male inhabitants of the rural districts even greater than that experienced in the succeeding ten years, a fact which seems to imply that in the absence of the drain caused by the South African war, some other outlet must have been found for our young men. The pressure which causes these migrations began to affect our rural

districts fully fifty years ago, and although it may have been slightly reduced in 1891-1901, there can be no doubt as to its continued operation.

In few words, the rising generation in our rural districts cannot find employment in their native counties, and are thus compelled to migrate; whilst in other parts of the country young men often find inducements to go abroad, though their places may then be filled by immigrants, whether from the rural districts or from outside the national boundaries.

All this points to the gradual and continuous operation of powerful causes, to which statesmen must accommodate their ideas. No trivial motives can be conceived to actuate such large masses of men over such lengthened periods. With the assistance of the decennial summary of deaths by ages, which seems to be very late in making its appearance, (that for 1881-90 appeared in 1895) it will be possible to make close calculations as to the net loss and gain in each registration district. Such calculations can already be made for counties, but there is in many cases great need of subdivision of counties, if we are to draw any useful lessons from their statistics.

In the meantime, if we confine our attention to the period of greatest movement, that commencing with ages 5-25 and ending ten years later with ages 15-35, we may even now gather valuable conclusions, since the death-rates at that period are low, and any inaccuracy in estimating losses by death must be trivial compared with the migratory movements disclosed. And in general it may be held that an augmentation of male population at the active period of life by means of migrations is far more significant of prosperity than the movement of total population can be.

A general review of the facts shows that net gains of male population at the ages stated are confined, with few and slight exceptions, to three main categories of places—viz. large cities, colliery districts, and military and naval depots. The exceptions are a few industrial places, and a still smaller number of residential localities. Net losses are by no means confined to the agricultural districts. Many industrial places and old towns send away part of their young men, and from residential places taken collectively a large proportion of young men depart, including nearly two-thirds as great a proportion as that observed in rural districts, at the age commencing with 10-15 and ending with 20-25.

The heavy rates of increase of total population in colliery districts seem to result much more from their exceptionally high birth-rates than from the importation of outside labour; but these districts draw many wives from surrounding unprogressive localities.

It would be tedious to enumerate the places where military or naval establishments influence the movement of population. Suffice it to say that in a large number of such districts a total gain is computed at ages 15-25 of as many as 42,455 men, which compares with a similar gain of 24,112 men in 1881-91. After the age 30 there is a heavy loss of men, corresponding to some extent with the numbers of soldiers taking their discharge and finding other homes. These military places have an attraction for young women, gaining about 6,659 in the first ten years and 17,331 in the second, of whom somewhere about one-half were of the age 25-35 and were therefore older than most of the soldiers.

The industrial centres which attracted moderate numbers of men were Barrow, Coventry, Swindon, Rugby, Kettering and Reading. And the residential places which, contrary to the usual experience, attracted young men as part of a general growth of population, were Southend and Llandudno. In the preceding ten years a similar tendency had been shown by Bourne-mouth and Poole, but this was not maintained in 1891-1901. In the majority of residential places there was, as already stated, a considerable loss of young men in each decennial period, and indeed it is curious to remark in how few cases (except those of suburbs) there is an apparent tendency to attract entire families. As respects women, they were attracted by residential places in both periods at the ages 15-25, the totals being about 24,000 in the first decennium and 28,000 in the second; and as the census is taken at the end of March, when these places are comparatively empty, it

seems fair to infer that these were not visitors, but persons prepared to wait upon the public at the commencement of the season.

The towns in which textile manufactures predominate deserve special attention. In 1881-91 the Lancashire "cotton towns" drew to themselves 3,355 boys aged 15-20 and lost very few men, but in the next decennium they gained no boys and lost about 10,000 young men. Of young women they gained about 20,000 in the first and 12,000 in the second period. The Yorkshire "woollen towns" lost more men in the second than in the first decennium; of women aged 15-25 about 10,000 were attracted in 1881-91 and about 8,000 in 1891-1901. It may finally be noted that Coventry, Kettering and Reading attracted moderate numbers of young women, but Middlesbrough and Barrow parted with many of theirs, and there was a considerable efflux of both sexes from Wolverhampton, Dudley, and other places in the Black Country.

A difficult problem presented by the statistics of 1891-1901 is a remarkable influx (from Scotland, Ireland and more remote places) of children under 15 of both sexes. The enormous improvement in our means of communication may have led to many British children being born "out of bounds", and the resort of foreign children to England for their education may have increased. We notice that the towns where textile manufactures are carried on absorbed in 1881-91 about 12,000 children under 15, the larger half being girls, and in the same period the residential places attracted about 26,000 children of that age. About 20,000 migrated to the coal-fields of Glamorgan and Durham, doubtless as a part of whole families who removed there from less prosperous places.

An interesting fact is the departure of many women from this country at ages from 35 upwards, the total loss in 1891-1901 being probably over 100,000. Very many leave London, and these may include persons of provincial birth returning to their native counties either through ill-health or for the purpose of intermarrying with old neighbours. But a considerable element in these departures, besides that of emigration, and the removal for residence in warmer climes so desirable for invalids, must be the return of foreign workers to their respective countries, where their experience in Britain enables them to set up as entertainers, teachers, companions, &c.

Many useful calculations relating to this subject would be facilitated were we supplied with tables derived from the information gained by means of the Census, showing the ages of immigrants of each nationality in every part of the kingdom. In the absence of such data it is difficult to determine how the balances of loss or gain to which reference has been made are arrived at in each particular case.

It will not have escaped attention that the remarkable decline in birth-rates (which dates as respects the country generally from about 1885 though in some important places it was operative from fully eight years earlier) will tend to alleviate the hard necessity which forces so many of our people to emigrate. Already in 1901 it had diminished by about two millions the number of children of both sexes under 15 years of age, as compared with the number which would have been counted, if the conditions prevalent in 1881 had been maintained. The contemporaneous reduction in mortality is far from being sufficient to neutralise the loss of population referred to, and whilst the means by which a reduction in the number of births is brought about cannot be commended, it would be unfair not to make allowance for the economical conditions which have impelled so large a number of persons in every part of the country in this direction. The United States and the Australasian Colonies no longer provide such outlets as they once offered, as legislation has restricted immigration in both cases; but Canada and Africa will probably long continue to attract those of our people who cannot "get a living" at home.

THOMAS A. WELTON.

REVIEWS.

WISER THAN SOLOMON.

"*Mediæval Rhodesia.*" By David Randall-Maciver.
London: Macmillan. 1906. 20s. net.

IN these progressive times often the new thing is received as necessarily the true thing. Therefore we shall not be in the least surprised to learn that the theory set forth by Mr. Randall-Maciver in his work, "*Mediæval Rhodesia*", has met with wide acceptance. This theory has certainly the merit of novelty. It is that the opinion of the old Portuguese, of Messrs. Theodore Bent, Hall and Neal, Swan, Wilmot and others that the multitudinous ruins of Rhodesia were the work of some ancient and instructed people is absolutely baseless, and that in fact these fortresses or temples were built by "negroes" in the Middle Ages.

Of his conclusions upon this point Mr. Randall-Maciver leaves us in no possible doubt. Thus in speaking of Zimbabwe he says "the date of the Elliptical Temple, then, is not earlier than the fourteenth or fifteenth century", and again "the earliest possible date for any of its buildings is two centuries before this", before the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Valley Ruins, he adds, "like the Elliptical Temple, are mediæval". This period, he tells us with a courage rare among scientific men, he has "determined".

Mr. Randall-Maciver at the invitation and with the support of the British Association and the Rhodes Trustees, arrived in Southern Rhodesia in April 1905 for the purpose of investigating the origin and date of the ruins, a work which occupied him until September in the same year. During this period he examined seven sites, namely, Inyanga, Niekerk Ruins, Umtali, Dhlo-Dhlo, Nanatali, Kahmi, and Zimbabwe. At Inyanga he came to the conclusion, very probably correct, that the so-called slave-pits were the somewhat uncomfortable fortress dwellings of the original builders, occupied by them either habitually or on occasions of danger. The Niekerk site proved extremely interesting. It covers over fifty square miles and includes two mountains. Of this great area the author says that scarcely anywhere is it possible to walk ten yards without meeting with a wall or the remains of a building or piles of stones which have been handled by man; indeed he thinks that the Pyramids themselves scarcely represent so much human labour. What was the object of these innumerable walls? Some people have thought that they served to retain cultivated soil upon the hillsides here and in other districts, as is the case at Madeira and in similar mountainous places. Mr. Randall-Maciver, however, believes that they make "one of the vastest series of entrenchment lines to be found anywhere in the world". This may well be so, indeed the photographs which he gives support the idea, although the reader who knows the South African tribes may be forgiven for wondering which of them were capable of the design and execution of such amazing fortifications, unless indeed these were inspired by the intelligence of a higher race. Which of them also reared altars and buried the remains of their ceremonial feasts in ornamented jars? We cannot say, but certainly the author's excavations here and elsewhere seem to have established that the residents in these ruins, or some of them, dwelt in huts not unlike those used by Kaffirs at the present day.

At Dhlo-Dhlo beneath the thick cement of platforms upon which dwellings had stood, or near them, Mr. Randall-Maciver had some important "finds", among which were fragments of blue and white Nankin china, gold wire enamelled with bronze, beautiful coloured pottery and a highly ornamented silver pin. Of these by far the most striking was the Nankin china, for on it perhaps more than on anything else he bases his argument that the date of the ruin is mediæval, or post-mediæval. This china, he says, is certainly not earlier than the sixteenth century, a statement in which he is borne out by Mr. C. H. Read, Keeper of the Ethnological Department of the British Museum, who certifies that the "style of decoration

and tint of blue indicate the middle of the Ming Dynasty, about early sixteenth century". The matter is of course one for experts, but in view of the far-reaching deductions that have been made from them, we would suggest that further opinions be taken upon these two fragments. The Chinese are a very ancient people. Is it not therefore possible that very similar china was manufactured by them in far past ages? Analogies occur to us in the case of Egyptian relics, and after all Mr. Read only says that the character of this particular ware "indicates" the date given. The enamelled gold wire is set down as probably of Oriental importation, while the origin of the silver pin is considered to be doubtful. It should be added that the occupants of these ruins were so advanced in sanitary science that they actually cemented over their rubbish heap in order to prevent it from blowing about in the wind. This they did time upon time, so that the refuse pile is stratified with layers of cement. In some of the walls at Nanatali also, of which the masonry is said to be excellent, they made use of mortar, and at Zimbabwe the stratification of the cement floors, mentioned by Mr. Hall, is accounted for by the burning of wood upon the various faces to harden them. Possibly, but it seems curious that the builders instead of allowing the cement to dry naturally, as it would have done in a few days or weeks, should have gone to the great labour of lighting fires all over it and then placing a fresh coating upon the charcoal. If, however, these floors were once thickly covered with huts or other wooden buildings, is it not possible that the layers of charcoal and other debris represent the results of conflagrations? Moreover do any South African natives exist, or can they be proved to have existed, who have or had the arts of making granite cement, of dressing stone and of building with mortar?

The reader may wonder by what arguments Mr. Randall-Maciver meets the deductions of his predecessors in this field, which of course are totally different from his own. The answer is—by ignoring them. His report, he says truly, is "wholly independent and original", and therefore "little or no reference has been made to various books which it was impossible to praise and would have been invidious to criticise", or to "the excavations which had been conducted by various untrained amateurs". Surely, however, those books merit some temperate criticism at his hands. We will not stop to compare the qualifications of Mr. Randall-Maciver and of such men as Messrs. Hall and Neal, who have examined an enormous number of these sites, or, to say nothing of others, of the late Mr. Theodore Bent. Some, however, will be inclined to demur to his writing down as an amateur one who gave twenty years and finally sacrificed his life to the interests of exploration and archæology; the results of whose labours, moreover, have hitherto been received with respect.

Mr. Randall-Maciver, as we see, declares that these buildings, and especially those at Zimbabwe, were not erected a day before the later middle ages. He does not explain how, in this case, it happened that in the time of the early Portuguese writers no tradition of their origin seems to have remained. For instance, Manuel de Faria e Sousa, a seventeenth-century author, states expressly that "the natives know nothing of their foundations", and Dos Santos, about 1609, says that "fragments of old walls and ancient ruins of stone and mortar are still standing"; whilst Diogo de Couto, who wrote before 1600, attributes the ruins to the Queen of Sheba. How does it chance that if they were really all built about 1500, no traditional memory of their erection remained among men whose immediate ancestors must have assisted in the mighty work? Again, what evidence is there to show that any South African tribe ever manufactured the objects peculiar to Nature-worship of which so many have been found in these ruins, or set up carven vultures upon soapstone beams, or built towers that so remarkably resemble that which once stood at Byblos, or of their own mere motion carried on gold-mining to the extent that it has been practised in Rhodesia? The author suggests that the stone vultures were tribal emblems, and that the cones or towers at Zimbabwe represented the chief and

someone else connected with him. This is an explanation which will probably fail to satisfy many who know the natives of this part of Africa, especially when he adds that these were the buildings of "negroes" whose customs and arts varied little, if at all, from those of the modern Makalanga, who, by the way, differ very materially from any negroid tribe of which we have heard.

But it is impossible to treat of all these matters within the limits of a review. We will only add that whatever may be doubtful about them, it is certain that Mr. Randall-Maciver has not, as he supposes, definitely settled the origin of the unnumbered ruins and gold mines of Rhodesia, and we shall be surprised if his confident assertions are not promptly answered. Although we fully acknowledge the thoroughness and ability of his work so far as it goes, the conclusion at which he arrives that these mighty remains were built by negroes at a single period, in the later middle ages, seems scarcely credible to us. If that was the case, this unintellectual people, after suddenly developing civilisation, commerce and great architectural talent, must have deteriorated wondrously in the course of the last few centuries.

LITTLE VERSE.

"The Blue Bird." By Lady Alfred Douglas (Olive Custance). London: The Marlborough Press, Limited. 5s. net.

"Innocencies: a Book of Verse." By Katharine Tynan. London: A. H. Bullen; Dublin: Maunsell and Co. 3s. 6d. net.

"Lays of the Round Table, and Other Lyrical Romances." By Ernest Rhys. London: Dent. 3s. 6d. net.

"Poems of the Seen and the Unseen." By Charles Witham Herbert. Oxford: Blackwell; London: Simpkin Marshall. 3s. 6d. net.

"Poems." By R. Ellis Roberts. London: Brimley Johnson.

"A MONTH or twain to live on honeycomb is pleasant", we are assured on good authority. In a metaphorical sense, however, these five volumes of minor verse raise a considerable doubt as to the truth of this statement.

Lady Alfred Douglas' "Blue Bird" is very full of honey indeed. Here the spirit and manner of a school of verse which flourished in Oxford early in the last decade, and of which Ernest Dowson and Lionel Johnson were the most typical representatives, are reproduced with monotonous fidelity. We have a poem on Endymion, on Hyacinthus, on S. Sebastian. There is much talk of roses, and a very lavish, if rather indiscriminate, distribution of the epithet "honey-coloured".

"When life is difficult I dream of how
The angels dance in Heaven",

the author tells us, which is at least a new outlook on theology, if it is not very remarkable poetry. One set of stanzas, "The Child", has real delicacy of expression and truth of sentiment, and deepens our regret that Lady Alfred Douglas should continue to believe that subservience to an outworn convention of form and language can take the place of a real insight into and interest in the human soul.

Miss Katharine Tynan calls her new volume "Innocencies". The title is justified by a vast deal of nursery prattle, a great many rather obvious remarks on country-side things, and a perfect innocence of obedience to the laws of metre and rhyme. There is a simple pose as well as a complex, and it is quite as possible to be affected in the nursery or the farmyard as in the park or the drawing-room. In poetic literature we are suffering just at present from a very general oblivion of this fact, but it seems a great pity that Miss Tynan should spoil a genuine gift by seeking for that fatal "touch of nature which makes the

whole world"—commonplace. For instance a really pathetic poem, "The Ghost", ends as follows:

"Fear! is it fear of you,
And on my breast your head?
I shall but fear the dawning new,
And the cocks both white and red."

It is only the few, the very few, who can successfully manipulate effects of this kind. For the many they are safest left alone.

"Lays of the Round Table" is Mr. Ernest Rhys' title for a rescript of portions of Malory and of other Arthurian legends. On the whole they are faithful and have not more of the air of Wardour Street than is inevitable in such an attempt. Frankly, however, we cannot say that we think the "Morte D'Arthur" or the other tales drawn on enhanced by Mr. Rhys' treatment. To rebuild Noah's Ark is never a very hopeful venture; to hawk the scattered spars and timbers seems to us even more hopeless. The secret of the poetic treatment of bygone ages lies not so much in a correct reproduction of hauberk and shirt of mail, and the forms of archaic speech, as in remembering that under hauberk and mail beat human hearts, and that the uncouth syllables were once the vehicle of man's primary and eternal emotions. Mr. Rhys would no doubt be the first to admit the impossibility of an adequate prose-paraphrase of a great poem; in his "Lays" it seems to us that he has attempted a converse task, with a result only appreciable by the examiners in English to the London University.

"Poems of the Seen and the Unseen" gives by its mere name a strong suggestion of translation, and indeed a fair amount of Mr. C. W. Herbert's little work consists of versions from Ruckert and Platen. Even when he is original he is careful to avoid extremes, and is also conscientious enough to print above his own verses a line or two from the poems which inspired them. His "unseens" are apparently so difficult that they need comment, which he thoughtfully supplies in an appendix of notes and explanations. These show Mr. Herbert's reading to be very considerable. Wordsworth would seem to be the chief influence of many both on his style and point of view. The book hails from Oxford, and it is at any rate pleasant to welcome at last a volume of verse from that quarter whose sources of inspiration are stronger and clearer than the puddled springs of the French decadent school.

A good deal of verse is tolerable enough in the columns of a newspaper or magazine which will hardly bear the severer test of being read in volume form. This is emphatically the case with Mr. Ellis Roberts' "Poems", many of which have appeared in various dailies and periodicals. Mr. Roberts writes neatly and lightly in the artificial French forms such as the ballade and the rondeau, though, like most modern versifiers who indulge in such poetic gymnastics, he seems to think that saying things neatly and ingeniously absolves him from the necessity of having anything to say. The decasyllabic rondeau, he might be reminded, offers a medium for poetic expression as exquisite as the classic elegiac or the modern sonnet. Whatever be the case with other artificial forms, the rondeau, at any rate, is susceptible of very serious emotional import, and it is a pity that it should remain the sport of triflers, or, at best, the *παρρηγοιον* of the genuine poet. In the longer poems there is not much to notice. They are correct and scholarly without much distinction of thought or language.

One thing alone remains to be said of these five books, and that is a word of gratitude. They might all so easily have been larger.

THE REGIMENT OF HEALTH.

"Food and the Principles of Dietetics." Revised Edition. By Robert Hutchison. London: Arnold. 1906. 16s. net.

THE study of dietetics has reached the dignity of polite learning. Time was when the intimate processes of life were the province of the specialist, when digestion and other unobtrusive offices of nature

were regarded rather as unfortunate (as being vulgar) accidents of our being than as attractive stimuli to conversation at the dinner-table. But we have changed all that. The pros and cons of vegetarianism, the rôle of alcohol in the body, the origin of uric acid and its malevolence, all these are items of a liberal education nowadays, and as essential in the armament of small-talk as an acquaintance with the contemporary music-hall stage. This change of attitude is in part due to the insistence of science, sometimes pointing true but often deflected by the ignorant misapplication of superficial knowledge, in part to the progressive urbanisation of the people. This last factor may appear sufficiently foreign to the subject: but it is not so. No careful observer will deny that we are becoming more sensitive as we become more urban. We have, by prolonged intellectual application, educated our receptive centres to so high a pitch of irritability that every minutest stimulus finds an exaggerated reflection in consciousness. We have in addition neglected the fact that a sedentary life and a weakened digestion are consecutive corollaries of an intellectual existence. As a consequence of all these circumstances we find everywhere an increasing prevalence of subjective disorders, or at least of disorders whose subjective manifestations exhibit a prominence out of all proportion to their objective counterparts. Vague disturbances of those functions whose operation in the case of the robust and phlegmatic countryman produces no change in consciousness, result in the case of his more highly-endowed urban brother in a multitude of minor distresses which, lacking ready explanation on other grounds, find their solution in trivial or hypothetical vagaries of the digestive system.

It is not hard to understand how such a situation opens the door to the faddist and the quack. Here is a bodily anomaly directly due to an environment whose operative factors are an excess of mental combined with a deficiency of bodily activity; an environment, moreover, too often rendered unalterable by lack of pence. It is no wonder that the resources of medicine, being at the best but palliative in such a case, are soon discarded for the more alluring counsels of the faddist or the quack. These irregular practitioners command one element of success in the treatment of subjective maladies which is generally denied to the dispassionate physician, namely an overweening confidence in the nostrum advocated. In the case of the faddist this confidence is sincere, in the case of the quack it is counterfeited, but in either case it is a weapon of equal power. It is, of course, suggestion. Now the influence of suggestion is seldom permanent, but often for the time immense. As a result we find the subjective sufferer passing from cure to cure, receiving benefit from each, and belauding in extravagant terms a régime or drug which within a month will be discarded for another. On such foundations rest the most noisy and least deserving claims of popular dietetics.

This awakening of public interest is therefore to a certain extent regrettable as being an expression of flagging physical vigour, but in other respects it is wholesome enough, for science has taught us much about diet. In the essay from which we have borrowed a title Bacon has anticipated latter-day research. "There is", he says, "a wisdom in this [i.e. the regimen of health] beyond the rules of physic: a man's own observation, what he finds good of, and what he finds hurt of, is the best physic to preserve health. But it is a safer conclusion to say 'This agreeth not well with me, therefore I will not continue it' than this, 'I find no offence of this, therefore I may use it'. For strength of nature in youth passeth over many excesses which are owing a man till his age. Discern of the coming on of years, and think not to do the same things still; for age will not be defied". This gospel in its application to food and feeding is the essential teaching of modern dietetics.

The problem of eating and drinking reduced to its simplest terms is this. The provision of fare such in quality and quantity as will suffice to maintain an equilibrium of weight after payment of the vital outgoings, heat and energy. The trite comparison of the human body to a combustion engine is legitimate enough, although in the case of man the fuel is in large

part applied to the making good of wear and tear in the machine itself. Now the fuels or foods fall into three great chemical groups, the proteids, albuminous bodies of which meat is a type, bodies which are relatively far more abundant in the animal than in the vegetable kingdom; the carbohydrates, which include the starches and sugars and are mainly derived from the vegetable kingdom; and the fats which are abundant in both kingdoms. To these three groups must be added water and certain mineral matters. The main office of the proteids is tissue-formation, an office accruing to them by virtue of the combined nitrogen which they contain. The main office of the carbohydrates and fats is the provision of potential energy for conversion into heat or work: they are to some extent interchangeable for this purpose, but not by any means entirely. Lastly, the proteid group is the only one capable of subserving both functions, namely of tissue-formation and of the provision of energy.

It will be plain from this bald statement that the essentials of a dietary will vary within wide limits according to the calls upon any individual. Dwellers in cold climates will require a relatively large supply of heat. Now the fats yield on combustion approximately twice as much heat, weight for weight, as do the proteids or carbohydrates. A good supply of fatty food is therefore theoretically advisable for those who have to encounter much cold, a proposition exemplified by the diet of the Esquimo, which consists largely of seal-blubber. Mental work on the other hand involves no measurable increase of bodily waste—a matter of common experience, and confirmed, according to the author of the book before us, by exact experiment. A moderate diet of proteids would therefore appear best fitted to meet the needs of such individuals as live by their heads.

It appears then that the principles of dietetics admit of some approach to exact definition, but the limits of dogma are soon touched: the human body is singularly intolerant of rigid circumscription by rule: natural caprice, or idiosyncrasy, is an attribute of most living things, and it is fatal to rules of thumb. None the less we have said enough to show that science can lay the bed-plates of dietetic wisdom, although the superstructure is susceptible of the widest variation. How wide this variation may be is evident from the bulky proportions of Dr. Hutchison's book, which traverses with unusual thoroughness the whole catalogue of eatables and drinkables. Here one may find the food-value of oysters, the best way to cook eggs, the historical importance of the *Agaricus muscarius* (the poisonous mushroom which proved fatal to the Tsar Alexis), and withal a sound and critical survey of the field of dietetics. Much of this matter is of special rather than popular interest, but certain of the problems dealt with have a definite claim upon the public ear. Of these perhaps the most important is the proper attitude of science towards the use of alcohol. An immense accumulation of experience demonstrates that long-continued ingestion of alcohol, except in strictly regulated doses, results in a tissue-poisoning. But the caprice of individual tissues and the varying influence of different modes of life have greatly complicated the issue. Most of us number among our acquaintance some person who in spite of a prolonged and generous use of alcohol still maintains good health. Such people are a public danger, stumbling-blocks for weaker brethren, exceptions who confirm the rule that alcohol very readily becomes a poison. It is idle to attempt rigidity as to the limits of safety, but much physical exertion enlarges these limits and a sedentary life narrows them. The quantity of alcohol which is capable of oxidation in the body in one day is approximately represented, according to Dr. Hutchison, by two ounces of brandy or whisky, half a pint of claret, or a pint of bottled beer, figures which show that science is not generous in the matter of alcohol. In the public estimation intoxication is held to be a measure of the evil effect of alcohol; a pernicious error, since many a man habitually exceeds the limits of harmless drinking who has never been drunk in his life. It cannot be too widely known that an occasional gross excess, with intervals of real moderation, is much less hurtful than frequent "nipping". It

is not for nothing that life insurance offices offer specially favourable terms to total abstainers: can the suspicion of sentimentalism be lightly levelled against such purely business corporations?

We have touched briefly upon one outstanding dietetic problem of public interest. Dr. Hutchison's excellent work supplies material for judgment upon many others of almost equal importance, such, for example, as the prevention of infantile mortality (which is almost entirely a dietetic matter), and the proper rôle of meat-extracts and broths in the treatment of the sick, a question long and sadly misunderstood. It is to be regretted that Dr. Hutchison has not found himself able to deal at greater length with the recent work of Professor Chittenden of Yale. This authority has gone far to shake orthodox beliefs as to the quantity of albuminous foods necessary to the maintenance of good health. His experiments profoundly affect the scientific justification of vegetarianism, and modify to a corresponding degree the value of Dr. Hutchison's observations on the subject. But with this exception the book before us offers an interesting and informing survey of dietetics, and one generally representative of current scientific opinion.

MORTALS.

"A Book of Mortals." Being a Record of the Good Deeds and Good Qualities of what Humanity is pleased to call the Lower Animals. Collected by a Fellow Mortal (F. A. Steel). London: Heinemann. 10s. 6d. net.

THE curious title and aggressive sub-title of this book; its singular cover, symbolically adorned with a gold star and people in purple robes on a grey ground, the four margins lettered like some old mural tablet; a frontispiece of the Good Shepherd and His sheep; a page of dedicatory verses; then more verses sandwiched between more full-page illustrations; and preface and list of contents and of illustrations, &c., all together impress one that something of tremendous importance is going to follow. Unfortunately all this pomp and circumstance leads us to expect too much. Then there is this very solemn note struck in the preface: "Is it not strange that neither religion *nor the lack of it*, neither that which holds out immortality to man, *nor that which steals the last star from the night surrounding him* [the italics are ours] should concern itself with the future of animal life?" It is not of a future on earth of which the author speaks, seeing that she goes on to proclaim her belief that a record of the virtues and vices displayed by animals in their servitude will be admitted for comparative evidence in the great trial of Immortal Man versus the Beasts that Perish which will surely come before the Great Assize.

"A Book of Mortals" is then a book about the lower animals, chiefly in their relations to man; and it therefore deals mainly with domesticated animals, the benefits we derive from them and the very unsatisfactory treatment they receive at our hands. But it is not, as the author has led us to imagine, the work of a humanitarian of the modern extreme school. Far from it. She does not want us to be vegetarians, though it hurts her to think of the millions of creatures—patient bullocks, innocent lambs, and beautiful happy birds—which must be slain each year to feed the inhabitants of London alone. Hunting, shooting, and fishing she regards as harmless pastimes; men are the better for them; and in like manner women are the better for the possession of sealskin jackets and furs for comfort, with aigrettes and birds of paradise for ornament. What then is the purpose of the book? One reads and re-reads the various sections, on Reason and Instinct, and Birth and Marriage and Death and Character and Conduct in the animal world, and many other things, down to Faith, Hope and Charity and Speech; and after all one does not quite know what it is all about.

Perhaps the secret of the unsatisfactory and somewhat mystifying effect of the work is due to the fact that she writes not like one but as two distinct persons: she who feels, whose emotions have been deeply stirred by one little beast, her pet dachshund, her friend, her dear little Otto; and she who thinks; who after invent-

ing a sort of philosophy to fit the particular case of the dachshund, finds it necessary to include all animals. The dachshund is much in her thoughts. Being dead she misses him sadly and refuses to believe that the separation is for all time; for surely this most intelligent and affectionate creature was just as worthy of immortality as any human being! But if the dachshund is to live again it will not be merely because she wishes it, but because there is in all dogs, and in animals generally, as in man, an immortal principle. This is the motive of the book. And this is how it is written: "But in truth it matters little whether the beasts that perish have, or have not, a true abstract conception of death, for—in truth also—there may be no death, and so our fellow mortals may not be less ignorant but wiser than we". And so on through the book; whenever she attempts to come to close quarters with her subject it floats a mere cloud from her. Nor has she been able to draw any help from her studies of the animal nature and soul in sacred and other ancient writings. Many of our mythical old friends in fur and feather are trotted out once more, possibly because of some vague idea in the author's mind that these legends are favourable to her belief. Here we have Balaam's Ass, the Lion of Androcles, the Phoenix and Halcyon, the Wolf of the Capitol, and the Dog of Ulysses. One is sorry to miss the bears who executed vengeance on the naughty little boys for mocking at the prophet, but the good old Unicorn has not been forgotten.

A propos of the unicorn here is a story of that animal which has not appeared in print before, and may be useful to future compilers of animal books of this kind. A short time back a lady at an afternoon tea in a London house related the career of an extravagant young man whose people were friends of hers. He came unexpectedly into a bigish fortune which he at once set about dissipating in the maddest way. His chief ambition was to outdo everyone in the fashionable world in every description of ostentatious folly. For instance, when he took to exhibiting himself in Hyde Park he was not satisfied to drive such a common animal as a horse, but procured a unicorn, and this high-spirited singular animal driven by the wild young gentleman who was going the pace was for a single season one of the sights of the Park. That was how she told it, and the person who sat next to her, an elderly naturalist as it happened, went on sipping his tea without a word. Piqued at this apparent want of interest in her narrative, she asked him pointedly what he thought of that foolish young man. He replied that he did not think about him in any way—he doubted the truth of the whole story: for instance he said, we know that there was no such animal as the unicorn on the earth; that if it ever had an existence it must have become extinct at some exceedingly remote period; but as no fossilised remains had so far been discovered, the presumption was that it was nothing but a myth. "Did I say a unicorn?" she returned. "Of course I meant a zebra—you might have known that!"

And what, the author may ask, is the application? She may add that we are not treating her fairly, that this unicorn story, which some may think funny, is wholly irrelevant. True: but the book is to blame for that, since there is something both in the matter and the manner of it which provokes one to irrelevancy and even flippancy.

STUBBS' THEORY OF HISTORY.

"Lectures on English History." By William Stubbs. Edited by Arthur Hassall. London: Longmans. 1906. 12s. 6d. net.

MR. HASSALL, who has written a brief preface to these lectures, does them less than justice. They will no doubt be useful, as he supposes, to academic students; and the first eight lectures will hardly appeal to any other circle of readers. The general public does not study the evidences of history; and, although the commentary on "Stubbs' Charters" with which we are here supplied is a model of professional exposition, it must be accounted as work of the text-book order. When we turn to the latter part of

the volume the case is very different. Here, too, we have what is in form a commentary—the book under discussion being Hallam's "Middle Ages". But Hallam is soon relegated to the background, for the lecturer is supplementing Hallam; and the questions which interested Stubbs, but did not interest Hallam, are more important, more provocative of curiosity, than any which are actually discussed in the "Middle Ages". Here we find Stubbs taking the field against two rival schools of history. On the one hand he attacks the philosophic school, beginning with the characteristic observation that "philosophy in its modern use is generally nothing but an attempt to discover the wrong reasons for events or phenomena"; on the other hand he dissociates himself from Freeman by postulating that "the world of modern history is self-contained, is divided from the old".

These conclusions are to be found, implicit or partially stated, in many other parts of the Bishop's writings. But they are here defended and illustrated by a comparative sketch of European history. This is by no means negative in character. The idea of subjecting history to a general formula of evolution is controverted on the ground that the introduction of Christianity has produced a radical difference between the ancient and the modern worlds; and that Christianity cannot be regarded as in any sense the outcome of classical civilisation. Our religion, we are told, is the gift of a providence which certainly operates throughout the whole of history, but of which we cannot affirm that it acts by any law. Christianity, indeed, supplied a link between the Roman Empire and the barbarian kingdoms; the Church preserved for mankind some principles of Roman law, some theories of Greek philosophy, some relics of ancient art and literature. But these adventitious aids to progress were as nothing, for the moral or intellectual future of Europe, when compared with the self-originated teaching of the Church; and political development in each of the great European nations is due to the mutual action and reaction of Christianity and barbarian custom upon one another. Where Roman law has been strong, as in Spain and Italy and France, there political development has been stunted. Teutonic law has not invariably led to political liberty; for racial feuds and geography and accidents of a hundred kinds have conspired to check the natural process of development. But Christian Teutonism has been the soundest influence in European history.

In criticising such conclusions we must remember that they do not represent the maturest work of the distinguished author. It is doubtful whether he intended these lectures to be published; and he would have been the first to admit that some parts of them required further elaboration before their argument could be regarded as complete. The superiority of Teutonic customs over those of the Celtic and Slavonic peoples is nowhere vindicated. The history of Spain, though it is important for the general line of argument, is handled more fully than by Hallam, but still too cursorily to prove the Bishop's point. On wider grounds one may well object to a method which disregards all other aspects of development but the political, and all movements of thought which are later in time than the fourteenth century. What, we may well ask, is the place of the classical Renaissance in the history of the modern world? The Bishop is silent. He assumes that the making of modern Europe was completed before the waters were troubled by this great movement of the human spirit. But, even within the limits of that middle age which he knew so well, there were influences at work which could not be called either Christian or Teutonic. The effects produced by the labours of the civilians and scholastics are too cavalierly treated in these lectures. Whatever patronage the Church extended to Justinian and to Aristotle, these two great names represent a classical heritage infinitely more important than those fragments of ancient science and literature which the Church of the dark ages had cherished and transmitted. On his own ground, that of constitutional forms, Stubbs holds an impregnable position. But there are broad tracks of modern life which he never understood and hardly attempted to survey.

NOVELS.

"Beyond the Rocks." By Elinor Glyn. London: Duckworth. 1906. 6s.

It is not an unhappy idea that a society novel should describe a novel society, and, if this was her purpose, Mrs. Glyn has been eminently successful. The plot of her story indeed is not marked by any particular merit of originality, but she deserves high praise for the vivid presentment of the manners, habits and customs of the modern aristocracy of the country in its social aspect, a presentment evolved entirely from the lively imagination of the author. While the profusion of titled personages should satisfy the most insatiate, the handsome hero with his "voice so tender and deep" cannot fail to appeal irresistibly to the least sentimental. They will hardly know whether the more to admire the brusquely courteous delicacy of his reply to his mother suggesting a suitable "match" for him—"Morella Winmarleigh! I would not be faithful to her for a week!" or the almost insolent chivalry of the command, showing a confidence and intimate companionship perhaps unhappily rare between a brother and a sister, to protect the prosperous grocer's wife whom he has been pleased to honour with his wonderful love:—"Don't let these other odious women put pin-points into her because she is so innocent and all unused to this society. She is just my Queen and my darling." And, loyal soul, this he says with "two great tears in his eyes". We can imagine too the delight that readers of the "Family Herald" will take in the bold bad Lord Wensleydown who "had an immense cachet . . . and was known to have specially attractive methods of his own in the art of pleasing beautiful ladies. He was always unfaithful too, and they had to make particular efforts to retain him even for a week". Utopian too in its primitive simplicity is a country-house of which a lady who stayed there with her husband says, "I assure you we felt quite out of it, having no little adventures at night like the rest". Some ungenerous persons there may be who will assert that they have no taste for the description of a society where vulgarity passes for wit and rudeness is the most favourite repartee, but none surely, albeit a smart American widow with delicious and refined humour speaks of him as "a lump of middle-class meat", will cavil at the portrait of one most perfect gentleman—a grocer.

"The Face of Clay: an Interpretation." By Horace Annesley Vachell. London: Murray. 1906. 6s.

In his new novel Mr. Vachell sets two or three examples of what used to be called the artistic temperament to play out a drama on a Breton stage. At the opening of the story a young girl, daughter of an English artist and his Breton wife, goes reluctantly to her father's people, leaving the friend of her childhood, a young English painter, to make a career which she may in time share with him. She becomes a great singer, and returns to Brittany to find him a broken man, master of his art but with ambition dead. The gradual discovery of his secret history fills the course of the story; she is determined to bring him back to the sane joys of life, but is baffled by the shadow of what he confesses to have been a crime. Meanwhile she is beset by an ardent wooer in the shape of a rising American painter. As a study of the effect of remorse on a morbid temperament, the book is deeply interesting, and all the characters of the drama are skilfully handled. Mr. Vachell has evidently studied his Breton peasants closely; the novel is to a great extent constructed on the theme of the relations between foreign artists and Breton models, and a subject which might easily lend itself to crude and unpleasant handling is delicately treated.

"Tracks in the Snow: being the History of a Crime." By Godfrey R. Benson. London: Longmans. 1906. 6s.

This is a good detective story of a somewhat novel kind. Mr. Driver, rector of a country parish, records the mysterious death of his intimate friend Eustace

Peters, and the lengthy and circuitous process by which an unexpected criminal was brought to justice. Peters was found one morning stabbed to the heart: three friends (of whom the supposed diarist was one) had been in his company the night before, and two of them were sleeping under his roof. The murdered man had apparently no enemies: he was a retired official of the Consular Service with literary and sporting tastes, by whose death no one, as it seemed, could hope to benefit. Mr. Driver reveals himself as a man of common-sense, possessing no marked acuteness, and hampered by certain prejudices. But in the character of Callaghan, Peters' friend, a retired Indian civilian, the author has made a study of remarkable insight. Callaghan, a brilliant and erratic Irishman, possesses qualities baffling and irritating to the Anglo-Saxon temperament, which cannot forgive a man who talks nonsense and behaves unaccountably for not being a fool. The book is really interesting, and the detective work is entirely amateur and yet soberly methodical. The ways of the hunted murderer, on the other hand, have a smack of melodrama.

"The Mystery of a Motor-Car: being the Secret of a Woman's Life." By William Le Queux. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1906. 6s.

Mr. Le Queux's latest farrago of incident is more mysterious and less grammatical than ever. The hero, as usual, is a person whom the hypercritical would label an outsider, but, as usual, he extracts from the bran pie of melodramatic imbroglio a bride of the finest water. We may be quite mistaken, but we could not help fancying once or twice that Mr. Le Queux was in a hurry when he wrote this book. It fulfils one rule of the game, since the reader cannot possibly imagine what it is all about until he reaches the end. But then the hero misleads him by interpolating moral reflections which turn out to have been founded on incomplete observation. When a "woman's hand-clasp placed upon me a hateful bondage; it set upon me the seal of evil; I verily believe that in that moment I sold my soul to the Evil One", it is startling to find that the lady in question turned out to be the virtuous heroine. Can the author have changed his mind midway? Also, a profound student of life would hardly make a man (unless it were Dickens' Mr. Toots) ask a girl in the afternoon whether she happened to remember that he had proposed to her that morning.

"A Young Man from the Country." By Madame Albanesi. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1906. 6s.

Madame Albanesi's stories are always readable, and her descriptions of various types of femininity are usually admirable and exact, but her forte lies in pleasant pictures of drawing-rooms and nurseries, and not in story-telling proper. The plot of her latest novel is most unsatisfactory and ill-contrived—its difficulties are forced and unnecessary, and its mysteries could not be long maintained in the circumstances of real life.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Selected Drawings from the Old Masters in the University Galleries and in the Library at Christ Church, Oxford." Chosen and Described by Sidney Colvin. Part IV. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1906. 63s. net.

We have drawn attention on previous occasions to the excellence of these reproductions and the care of the editing. In the present instalment there is not a great deal of the first order, and though everything has its trace of illustrative value for the historian, one is tempted to regret that the material was not more deserving of the cost and pains involved. The first drawing would be valuable indeed if it were a part of the lost cartoon for Leonardo's "Battle of Anghiari"; but, as Mr. Colvin says, it appears to be no more than a copy. The two following drawings come in the wake of Leonardo and are assigned to Giampetrino and Sodoma. Then there are two sheets of studies in the manner of Filippino Lippi. No. 6, "Studies from a Horse", rises to a higher level; these are pen studies by Michael Angelo, and they are followed by some trials in chalk for a group of Samson slaying the Philistines. Then comes the famous head supposed by Morelli and others to be a portrait of Raphael by Timoteo Viti. Mr. Colvin leaves the authorship in suspense. It is followed by Raphaellesque studies, not of the highest quality, of the Florentine and Roman periods

respectively. A scribble assigned to Correggio is followed by two scrawls assigned to Titian. The Netherlands schools are represented by two sheets of fanciful drawings by Bosch (Mr. Colvin's eulogy of these trifles is, we think, exaggerated) and by four Rembrandts of no great interest. There is a study by Spagnoletto, a topographical drawing by Nicolas Poussin, and two numbers by Watteau. The first of these has considerable interest biographically, besides being a lively and amusing drawing. It alludes to Watteau's return from England to France and his gratitude to his friend Julienne for saving the remains of his fortune from "shipwreck". Julienne standing on the shore receives Watteau from a storm-tossed bark, and Neptune appears driving his furious team. The castle with figures on the ramparts stands doubtless for Dover. The subject is engraved in the well-known "Recueil", but the drawing has not hitherto been identified.

"Big Game Shooting." "Country Life" Library of Sport. By various Authors. 2 vols. London: Newnes. 12s. 6d.

These two volumes, profusely illustrated, should certainly prove acceptable to all those who have shot or wish to shoot big game. But chapters on the Scotch red deer and his pursuit are very uninteresting. It is the more regrettable as one of them is by the editor, Mr. H. G. Hutchinson, who is singularly incorrect as to the method in which the stag should be stalked and the habits of the animal in general. He fails to note one of the things best known to stalkers—that you can, in nearly every case, approach a deer in fairly full view if you have a bright sun at your back and consequently in the deer's eyes; that eddies of wind in steep corries are best judged by watching the vagaries of the mist and passing showers; that deer invariably lie with the wind blowing over their backs and in such a position that they command the largest extent of country in front of them; that when you have spied the stag you intend to stalk, his exact position should be carefully marked. When a steep down-hill shot has to be taken you should never drag yourself down head-foremost, as advocated by the editor, but slip down feet first so that when you have to take the shot you have only to draw up your knees and shoot from that position. These are only a few of the faults of omission and commission in this chapter. We fail to see what park deer in England have to do with big game shooting. Sir Henry Seton-Karr writes excellently of Wapiti and other big game, but we wish he had given us some of his experiences with red deer in Hitteren. Mr. Warburton Pike writes with expert knowledge of the game in the barrens of the Canadian North-West, and Mr. C. P. Woolley of "Sport in many Lands". The chapter on South African game is in the safe hands of Mr. H. A. Bryden. Major C. S. Cumberland's chapter on Indian sport is perhaps the most delightful of the series. It is full of interest from start to finish and there is not a dull page to be found. In conclusion a word of praise must be given to the Hon. T. F. Freemantle for his most excellent chapter on sporting rifles. It could not be improved upon.

"Some Literary Eccentricities." By John Fyvie. London: Constable. 1906. 12s. 6d. net.

Mr. Fyvie's subjects include Crabb Robinson, Mandeville, Beckford, Landor, Wither and Hazlitt. He explains that by eccentricity he does not mean to convey any reproach. John Stuart Mill long ago urged that eccentricity indeed had always abounded where there had been strength of character. Most of Mr. Fyvie's subjects were great celebrities in their day, but their work has for the most part been buried in the lumber-rooms of literature. Who reads "Vathek" nowadays? Landor is practically as neglected as a prose writer as he is as poet. He has been finely reprinted of late years, but not, we imagine, with any very satisfactory results from the publisher's point of view. Hazlitt is perhaps the liveliest of Mr. Fyvie's authors to-day, but he is only read by those who care for the by-paths of literature. Mr. Fyvie gives interesting accounts of these authors, but it can hardly be doubted that they are neglected to-day because of the abundance of English classics far superior to their own work. An exception must be made of Landor and possibly of a certain amount of Wither's work.

"A History of Cambridgeshire." By Edward Conybeare. London: Elliot Stock. 1906.

Mr. Conybeare is favourably known as the author of a delightful if somewhat imaginative book on Alfred the Great, and in this work he undertakes history on much the same lines. There is already a considerable literature relating to the history and antiquities of Cambridge, town and county, including Carter's "History of Cambridgeshire", Dyer's "History of Cambridge" and Mullinger's "History of the University", and Mr. Conybeare has studied them and in fact all the authorities with discrimination. He frankly aims at making his book "readable", but in doing so he has not given unsound history. Mr. Conybeare will have nothing to do with those who declare that this county is particularly devoid of interest, both historically and physically, and we quite agree with him. Few parts of England, he holds, have fairer pictures of English country life than Cambridgeshire taken as a whole—"ancient churches of rare architectural beauty, thatched

cottages gleaming around village greens . . . harvest fields whence the gleaners may yet be seen, as of old, returning at eventide with their sheaves, combine to make up a landscape delightful to eye and soul". The volume appears in Messrs. Stock's new series of County Histories.

THEOLOGY.

"Studies of English Mystics (S. Margaret's Lectures, 1905)." By W. R. Inge. London: Murray. 1906. 6s. net.

When we took up Dr. Inge's book we found it hard to lay it down. This is partly due to his beautiful English, which makes every page a delight to read. But it is not only that; he has chosen a subject about which he knows a good deal and other people know very little, and which is in itself intensely attractive. Mysticism is hard to define; it is in reading the lives and works of the mystics, or in being guided to the mystical elements in writers we already know, that we gradually come to see what it is; and Dr. Inge has done wisely in making the mystics speak for themselves. The Ancren Riwle, and the works of Dame Julian of Norwich or of Robert Hylton, are probably unknown to the majority of even well read men; we know more about William Law, especially of late years; and most of us think we know a good deal about Wordsworth and Browning; yet even on the most familiar authors Dr. Inge's criticisms are worth very careful study. Only why does he stigmatise Law's friend John Byrom as a "sorry versifier"? the composer of "Christians, awake, salute the happy morn", and of the immortal epigram on the King and the Pretender, deserved more honourable mention, however poor much of his other work may have been.

"The Book of Job in the Revised Version." Edited with Introductions and Brief Annotations by S. R. Driver. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1906. 2s. 6d. net.

Dr. Driver should be a happy man; he has found out the work that he can do better than anyone else, and he does it. His commentaries on Joel, Amos, and Daniel in the "Cambridge Bible for Schools", his "Parallel Psalter", and now this commentary on Job, are works of a very high order, in spite of the modesty of their appearance; and in them all he shows unrivalled power in making the language of the Old Testament intelligible to ordinary readers. He knows how to write short notes and to put a great deal into them, and he never writes a note where it is not needed; his advice how to read the book of Job is very clear and acute; and the student who will work through it with this commentary will find in it a veritable revelation of some of the grandest passages in the Old Testament.

"Jesus." By W. Bousset. Translated by Janet P. Trevelyan. Edited by W. D. Morrison. London: Williams and Norgate. 1906. 4s.

There has been a movement of late years amongst German theologians to appeal to a wider audience than that of the lecture-room, and to issue short, able, popular pamphlets, summarising the results of their deeper studies. Professor Bousset's "Jesus" is a good specimen of such work; it is well written, forcibly expressed, and most interesting; and to an English reader there is something puzzling in the way in which he alternately rejects and accepts traditional beliefs as to the Saviour. Jesus Christ was not born of a Virgin, was not designated as the Messiah by John the Baptist, did not deliberately choose twelve disciples, did not intend to found a Church, did not institute a permanent rite at the Last Supper, did not assert that He was pre-existent with the Father, did not claim to be the future Judge of the world, and did not literally rise from the dead. But yet He did believe, from the beginning of His ministry, that He was the Messiah, or rather assumed that title as being the nearest, though an inadequate, expression of what He felt Himself to be in relation to God and in relation to man. The character and teaching of the Saviour are treated by Professor Bousset with splendid sympathy, though he occasionally adopts a tone of patronage; and he frankly rejects some of His moral teaching as exaggerated and impracticable. But in spite of this we welcome the book as being a real step back from mere criticism towards a deeper religious appreciation of our Lord and His Gospel.

"The Eye for Spiritual Things; and Other Sermons." By H. M. Gwatkin. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. 1906. 4s. 6d. net.

We are coming to the conclusion that the standard of preaching in the Church of England is going up. It is true that we have no mighty preachers now, like Liddon or Magee; and also true that the popular orators are no better than they should be. But a number of scholarly volumes appears every year which are a pleasure and a profit to read; and Dr. Gwatkin's sermons will rank high among these. They have real originality and independence of thought, a fine power of description, and an eloquence which is free from mere rhetoric; on the other hand he drags in controversy sometimes when it is not necessary, and it is just when he denounces dogma and tradition and the Roman Church that he deteriorates and tends.

to become commonplace. We do not forget that he is a Professor of ecclesiastical history; but he is at his best when he is expounding the New Testament.

"Pastoral Work in Country Districts; Lectures Delivered in the Divinity School at Cambridge, Lent, 1905." By V. S. S. Coles. London: Longmans. 1906. 3s. net.

These lectures are not entirely confined to the special sphere suggested by their title; they may be read with advantage by any clergyman or candidate for orders, whether his work lies in the country or in town. Mr. Coles endeavours to get at the roots of the matter; and the main needs of the parish priest, his faith, sense of vocation, love of his people, and study of the Bible, are the same all the world over. The reader of this book however, unless he be in sympathy with the Churchmanship of the Pusey House, will find some sides of pastoral work emphasised which he has not been accustomed to consider necessary, or even advisable. But even when he cannot agree he will respect; the whole is written in a tone that combines a high standard of clerical life with thorough good temper; and there are not too many anecdotes.

"The Hidden God." Sermons by R. F. Horton ("The World's Pulpit" Series). London: Brown Langham. 1905. 3s. 6d.

Dr. Horton's sermons in many ways resemble those of the Bishop of London; they are popular mission addresses by a preacher who is very much in earnest, and is used to speaking to large audiences; who when he argues is not convincing, but knows how to touch the heart when he appeals; and who quotes poetry whenever he is at a loss. Yet there is a difference between the two. Dr. Horton gushes; he gushes about his religion, and occasionally about himself; and the Bishop stops short of that. In both we miss the extraordinary power that characterised Newman's or Church's sermons, the power that comes from severe self-restraint; it is like the pathos in Thackeray which impresses us because we feel there is so much behind. Is it too much to hope that our preachers may learn to study such models a little more closely?

"Development and Divine Purpose." By V. F. Storr. London: Methuen. 1906. 8s. net.

In all departments of study we are slaves to the "historical method" just now. We examine the different periods in the development of our subject, show their relation to each other, and then think we have explained it. Sometimes this historical method is a cloak for poverty of thought; a lecturer or author does not quite know what to think, and hopes that if he writes the history of his subject and quotes what others have thought, the explanation will come of itself. And very often it does; certainly with political and legal institutions, national customs, and the like. But we make a mistake when from our success here we argue that for everything in the world and for the world itself we may find a sufficient explanation by simply tracing its growth. Evolution will explain how any form survived, but nothing more; and what is to explain evolution? At its base there are great presuppositions on which it throws no light, but which it is futile to ignore; and if it cannot explain its own beginning still less can it explain its end. Yet it must be towards an end, and it is the end, the perfectly developed form, which will be the real thing. It is no doubt interesting with any phenomenon to examine what it originally was and meant; but it is much more important to find out what it is and means now. Mr. Storr's lectures are a careful study of development in its relation to design; and he shows convincingly enough that development is hardly conceivable without the correlative idea of purpose. His book is a really valuable contribution to apologetic literature.

"The Conflict of Ideals in the Church of England." By W. J. Knox Little. London: Pitman. 10s. 6d.

Under this title Canon Knox Little has uttered his testimony on Church matters generally, the crisis, the position of the High Church party, the national defections, right-hand extremes and left-hand fallings off, and so on; it is in fact an apologia for the "Catholic" party in the Church of England and, like many an early Christian apology, consists mainly of an attack upon its opponents. The principal enemies of the Catholic party are the Bishops and the critics; the Bishops are too low or too broad, and the critics—even the Dean of Westminster, Dr. Sanday, and Bishop Gore—are all too broad. The Bishops can probably take care of themselves; and we think that the author's attack upon the critics is misdirected. He devotes four chapters to the Liberal movement in the Church, and some of his criticisms though not very novel or acute are true and forcibly put; a movement which is mainly critical and negative in its criticism will never arouse much religious enthusiasm; it is not likely to hold Missions or to conduct Retreats; and again Canon Knox Little is within his rights in questioning the moral rightness of a man signing and repeating statements which he does not believe; only he should remember that this charge of dishonesty has been equally brought by Low and Broad Churchmen against the Ritualists. But his attack upon

(Continued on page 702.)

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the Higher Criticism of the Bible shows little understanding of the problem. He opposes it absolutely on the ground that it wrings the sacred writings out of the hands of the Church who alone can interpret them, and is an attempt to bring the unsanctified reason of fallen man to play upon the Word of God without any guidance of the Church &c. The Church is apparently to decide for us not only the interpretation of Scripture in matters of doctrine, but also questions as to the date, authorship, and historical accuracy of the different books. To this claim we feel inclined to use language as strong as that applied by the author to the higher critics. The only way to meet criticism is by criticism; you may silence a particular critic by excommunicating him, but you will not silence criticism; or if an inquirer asks, say, why the sum paid by King David to Araunah for the purchase of his threshing floor is stated in Samuel to be fifty shekels of silver and in Chronicles to be six hundred shekels of gold, you will not satisfy him by saying that the Church has decided (even if it has) that both the statements are inspired and equally true. We object to much of the higher criticism not because it is criticism but because we believe it to be bad criticism; but the only way to demonstrate this is by carefully testing its assumptions, methods, and conclusions, not by simply denouncing it as "individualistic". We cannot say that Canon Knox Little's book is very profitable for instruction or for guidance on this point.

For this Week's Books see page 704.

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ROYAL MAIL STEAM PACKET.

The sixty-seventh annual meeting of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company was held on Wednesday at Cannon Street Hotel, E.C., Mr. Owen Philipps, M.P. (the chairman), presiding.

The Secretary (Mr. R. L. Forbes) having read the notice convening the meeting, The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the report, said: I am pleased to be again able to report an improvement in the Company's position, and the accounts now presented show that the business has been steadily expanding. During the past year the receipts have increased no less than £250,000 sterling, and our total receipts for last year were nearly £1,500,000. The working expenses have, it is true, also increased, owing to the greater number of voyages completed during the year; but the gross profit is larger than it has been for some time past. We have been able to make out of the profits of the year proper provision for the year's depreciation of the fleet. I wish again to remind the proprietors that the fleet still stands in our books at a figure very considerably above the market value; but, by continuing the policy we have been carrying on, we will, I hope, be able gradually to write down the fleet to its proper value, without calling upon the proprietors to make a sacrifice of any portion of their capital. Our fleet, which has been increased considerably during the last three years, now consists of forty-two vessels, of a total gross tonnage of over 165,000 tons. We are convinced of the necessity of continuing the progressive policy which we have been carrying on, under which policy the company is slowly but steadily returning to prosperity. Our mail and cargo services to the Brazils and the Argentine have been carried on during the past year with encouraging results, and the new twin-screw mail steamers of 10,000 tons which we are introducing into the service are keeping up the high reputation which the company holds, whilst the luxurious arrangements on board for the comfort of passengers will, I hope, induce many people to visit South America who might not otherwise do so. As you are all aware, the West India mail contract, which we had held from the British Government for over sixty years, terminated on June 30, 1905, and was not renewed. When I last had the honour of addressing you, I told you that we would meet the difficult problem, when it arose, to the best of our ability. We realised that it was a very difficult problem we had to solve. We had three-quarters of a million sterling invested in mail steamers, which had been built specially to meet the requirements of the West India mail contract service, and when, on the termination of the late mail contract, on June 30 last, the British Government ceased paying us the mail subsidy of £85,000 per annum, the British and Colonial Government took full advantage of an old Act of Parliament, which gives them the power to put mails on board any British vessel under a penalty of £100 for each bag of mails if the shipowner declined to convey them. We have informed the British Post Office that the sum they now pay us, amounting to about £5,000 per annum, is quite inadequate for the services rendered; but, as yet, we have failed to arrange for payment on a fair poundage basis. If the British and Colonial Governments can see their way to pay us a reasonable poundage rate for carrying His Majesty's West India mails across the Atlantic, I hope and believe that it will be possible to carry on this main line portion of our West India service without a mail contract, and thus make the important colonies of Barbados, Trinidad, and Jamaica quite independent of the necessity of any mail contract. Our inter-colonial branch services, which for over sixty years have connected Demerara and the smaller West Indian colonies with our transatlantic steamers at Barbados or Trinidad, are upon an entirely different footing to the main line service, and there does not appear to be any prospect of the amount of trade between these colonies ever being sufficient to support inter-colonial passenger steamers without Government assistance. We were anxious to put our friends and supporters in the West Indies to as little inconvenience as possible, so before reducing the inter-colonial service we laid all the facts before the Colonial Secretary, and we submitted a scheme on March 21 last whereby, for a moderate payment, all the West India Colonies could be regularly connected with the Company's transatlantic steamers at Barbados or Trinidad in a manner which, it is believed, would be satisfactory to the colonies; but as yet no decision has been announced by the Government, and, whatever may be the outcome, I think you will agree with me that we have done our utmost to uphold the best traditions of this great Company, and have dealt with these difficult colonial problems in a broad imperial spirit. The attacks made upon the Company's trade in the West Indies had the effect of impressing us with the importance of having a wider field of operations, and we took advantage of an opportunity which presented itself of re-entering the Australian trade after an absence of nearly half a century. In connection with this development of your business, we have issued £150,000 Four per Cent. Debentures, being the balance of the previous issue authorised by the proprietors, thus making the total amount of debentures now issued £500,000. The transfer of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company's interest in the Australian mail contract with the Commonwealth of Australia to our Company has now been confirmed. The Australian mail contract expires in 1908, and we propose tendering for the new contract jointly with our friends the Orient Steam Navigation Company, Limited. For some years past the Australian trade has been under a cloud; but this cloud of trade depression is now beginning to pass away. I believe that we have re-entered the Australian trade at a propitious moment, whilst the extended sphere of the Company's operations will give more scope for the energy and enthusiasm of our staff. I will now formally move: "That the report of the directors and accounts and balance-sheet submitted to this meeting be, and are hereby, adopted, and that a dividend of 5 per cent. (calculated from the dates for payment of the instalments) be paid on the preference stock, the undivided original shares receiving an amount equivalent to that to which they would have been entitled in respect of the preference portion of the capital had they been converted into stock."

The Right Hon. Sir James Fergusson, G.C.S.I., seconded the resolution, and it was carried unanimously.

A vote of thanks to the Chairman, directors, and staff was carried unanimously.

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